The Outlook

DECEMBER 27, 1916

Offices, 381 Fourth Avenue, New York

This number of The Outlook is the last in its present form. The issue of next week, to be dated January 3, 1917, will be the first to appear with the new type and in the new size.

THE WEEK

PRESIDENT WILSON'S NOTES TO THE NATIONS AT WAR

On December 21 President Wilson sent what are in most respects identic notes to the Governments of all the Allies and the Central Powers. In these notes the President "is not proposing peace; he is not even offering mediation." He sets forth the great desirability of immediate peace in the interest of the nations at war, of the neutral nations, "lest the situation of neutral nations, now exceedingly hard to endure, be rendered altogether intolerable," of the smaller and weaker peoples of the world, and of civilization itself. Therefore the President suggests that all the nations at war make an avowal of their respective views as to the terms upon which the war might be concluded. He does not suggest the means to accomplish this, and only in general terms offers to serve in the cause or even to take the initiative if desirable.

The President specifically declares that he is "somewhat embarrassed to offer it [the suggestion] because it may now seem to have been prompted by a desire to play a part in connection with the recent overtures of the Central Powers." In fact, he had, he says, long had it in mind. Nevertheless, the President would have done well to wait until the formal reply of the Allies to Germany had been sent (it will be ready almost immediately), and thereby have avoided creating the impression that he was trying to forestall their demand, voiced by Lloyd George, that the Central Powers should state plainly the chief terms which they would accept before a peace conference proposal could be considered. If this is the spirit in which the President's notes were written, they will not further his desire to have the United States act as mediator.

Whatever may be said of the motives or general attitude of the President, from one statement in the note we radically dissent. This statement is as follows:

> And yet the concrete objects for which it [the war] is being waged have never been definitely stated. The leaders of the several belligerents have, as has been said, stated those objects in general terms. But, stated in general terms, they seem the same on both sides.

The whole political, diplomatic, and military history preceding the declaration of war and during its course contradicts this statement.

We must reserve final comment upon the President's action until our next issue.

THE STORY OF THE WAR: A NEW FRENCH VICTORY AT VERDUN

The extent of the new advance by General Nivelle against the German positions before Verdun is perhaps best shown by the official announcement from Paris on December 18 that the total number of prisoners taken in the operations of December 15 amounted to 11,387.

So far as the ground taken in this attack is concerned, the advance was not large measured in miles or fractions of a mile, but it was important because through it the French gained possession of a hill near Louvemont which enables their guns now to bear upon the peninsula made by the river Meuse, one of the first sections to be abandoned by the French and occupied by the Germans.

Thus General Nivelle, on the eve of his relinquishing separate command of the French forces at Verdun in order to assume the general command of all the French armies in the Franco-Belgian field, makes what has been called a "parting gift to his army."

OTHER WAR NEWS

Berlin continues to report advances of the German and Bulgarian forces in Rumania. They pushed northward through the eastern part of Rumania, and last week crossed the Buzeu River. The place chosen for a firm stand of the Russians has been fixed along the line of the

Sereth River and that the battered Rumanian forces have been passed along behind the Russian army and are recruiting their strength beyond the Sereth.

Athens reports that the Greek King has agreed to the demands of the Allies; that most of the Greek army will be moved so far south as to cease to be a danger to the Allies; and that the treacherous attacks on British and French marines at Athens on December 1 will be made the subject of conference and probable reparation.

On the other hand—and this is a good illustration of the contradictory news which comes from Greece—it is stated that the King has issued an order to arrest Venizelos as a traitor. Such an order, if it really has been issued, is more an emanation of spite than anything else, as Venizelos is safely guarded by the Allies near the Salonika lines. A sentence in Lloyd George's great speech before the House of Commons on December 19 indicated that the new Prime Minister and his War Council propose to take strenuous and drastic measures to deal with the Greek situation.

A statement from Dr. Zimmermann, the German Secretary for Foreign Affairs, asserts that at different times submarines belonging to the Allies have sunk without warning five German steamers, which he names. It is probable that the Governments of the Allies will reply to this accusation when the circumstances have been examined, and we certainly think they should do so. Meanwhile we have technical German defenses against charges of destroying merchant ships without regard to the rules of war, and in some cases without regard to the German promise to the United States. In one case, where a British ship captain tried to ram a German submarine and was taken prisoner, fear had been felt that he would be executed as was Captain Fryatt. Thereupon the German Government cannily reports that it has no such intentions, for the captain's ship had a gun on board and was therefore a cruiser, and therefore, again, had a right to fire on an enemy. This is a happy conclusion so far as the captain is concerned, but is simply another way of asserting that any ship carrying a gun may be treated as a man-of-war.

The Marina case still hangs fire; if our Government has replied to German representations, no one knows what it has said; Great Britain declares that the Marina was in no sense a transport. As to the sinking of the American steamship Columbian by a German submarine, Germany's defense is that, having once been stopped and allowed to go on its way, the Columbian sent out in every direction wireless warnings of the presence of a submarine; this, it is claimed, was a hostile act, and justified the recapture of the vessel and its sinking, after the crew had been put in boats.

THE CHIEF OF STAFF BEFORE CONGRESS

We have already reported the views of the Chief of Staff, General Hugh L. Scott, upon the lesson of the mobilization of the militia upon the border. In a hearing before a subcommittee of the Senate Committee on Military Affairs General Scott reiterated his views of the militia situation, and then proceeded to outline his views of what is necessary for the country in the way of military preparedness.

General Scott not only made an excellent plea for universal training, but also unconsciously provided an excellent argument for the establishment of a real Council of National Defense. The function of a real Council of National Defense differs greatly from the function of that Council created at the last session of Congress. A real Council of National Defense should be composed of representatives of Congress, the executive branch of the Government, the army and the navy, and leaders from civil life. It should be charged with determining the general outline of our National military policy, and presenting to Congress in authoritative form a balanced military policy based upon a carefully-thought-out consideration of our resources and our needs.

We said that General Scott unconsciously supplied an excellent argument for the establishment of such a Council of National Defense by his recent remarks before the Senate Committee. At this hearing he attempted to estimate the size of the standing army required by a mathematical calculation of the forces which could be brought against this country, a calculation which ignored many of the considerations that a statesmanlike council would necessarily take into account. His estimate included a combination of the forces of Great Britain, Canada, and Japan, an estimate that trespasses not only upon the field of civil statesmanship but upon common sense. A real Council of National Defense would have relieved him of the temptation to commit this trespass.

GENERAL WOOD ON UNIVERSAL TRAINING

If what General Scott had to say on the military side of universal training was good, what General Wood had to say was doubly so. He indorsed all that General Scott wisely said as to the uneconomic, unreliable, inefficient, and extravagant nature of our present volunteer system, and then went on to describe the military and social advantages of the system which he desired to see substituted. General Wood advocated a system which provides for six months of intensive military training for boys when they reach the age of nineteen. This would be followed by thirty days of training at the age of twenty-one. The thirty days' training would be followed by enrollment in a "National Reserve" regiment, entailing liability to service until the age of twenty-nine. Under this system those most likely to be called into actual service would be between the ages of twenty-one and twenty-two, a period in which the average man has not yet acquired permanent family obligations. General Wood very wisely opposed payment for this service, saying that payment would destroy that feeling of National obligation which should be one of the chief objects of universal service. He said:

> Universal service is the only really democratic system, and I believe it would be thoroughly popular if people could realize that the rich man and the poor man alike would have to share its burdens. I have found enthusiasm for it everywhere when I have made people understand that no one is to be allowed to buy his way out. The labor leader and the district leader in New York alike are responsive to the idea under those conditions.

General Wood continued by saying that he did not believe in a large standing army, as his scheme if worked out would eventually give the Nation a reserve army adequate to make the country secure against invasion. The standing army should be kept only for manning permanent garrisons. General Wood voiced his belief that universal training would serve better than anything now known to give a sense of nationality to our immigrant population. He said: "I believe its effect in cutting down crime and improving the morality of the Nation would be startling. Our huge murder rate, now many times greater than that of Europe, would be divided by ten."

Perhaps it may be worth while to restate here what seems to us the fundamental principles which should guide our military legislation.

We want a Council of National Defense such as we have already described in our comment upon General Scott's remarks before the Senate Committee.

We want a standing army large enough to do all our Federal police duty, to fulfill our obligations to protect Porto Rico, Hawaii, and the Philippines, to guard our borders from such immediate disorders as have been threatened in times of peace by Indian wars and now by Mexican anarchy, and to man the permanent defenses of our harbors.

We want a navy large enough to furnish reasonable protection from invasion, and to provide us with a means to fulfill our obligations toward our smaller neighbors and towards the support of international law.

We want universal training, not only as a means of providing our country with the only adequate and economic method of National defense, but also to provide our citizens with the discipline which comes from the recognition of a vital social obligation to the land in which they dwell.

OUR PATIENCE WITH CARRANZA

Patience, like some other virtues, in excess may become a fault. We wonder if the patience of the United States in dealing with Carranza has not begun to reach this stage.

For almost four months the people of this country, irrespective of party and oblivious to a remarkable degree of the usual excitement of a political campaign, have waited with praiseworthy patience for the outcome of the conferences between Mexican and American commissioners, meeting first at New London and later at Atlantic City. Twice the Commission adjourned, the first time with apparent likelihood of dissolution, the second time with apparently good prospects of an agreement being reached. On the latter occasion a proposition for Carranza's ratification or disapproval was carried to the First Chief by one of his commissioners. Carranza was asked to give his acceptance or approval not later than December 9. But when his reply did come, ten days after the appointed date, it was neither acceptance nor rejection, but another request "for more time."

Carranza's request is based on his unwillingness to agree that hereafter the United States should be free to send its soldiers across the border at any time in pursuit of Mexicans who had raided American soil.

Meanwhile the Mexican-American Commission has adjourned until some time in January. And as the advance of the season has made New York City more a center of social life than Atlantic City, for the benefit of the Mexican commissioners the next conferences will be held on Manhattan Island.

With the ordering home of 17,000 more National Guardsmen comes the announcement from the War Department that the force on the border will be reduced to 75,000 men and kept at that strength until there is a definite clearing of Mexican skies.

Americans who have no material interest in Mexico, as well as those whose sons and brothers are condemned to patrol the border, may well begin to ask if our patience in waiting for Carranza to accept or reject the recommendations of his commissioners has not begun to be a fault.

THE LITERACY TEST AGAIN

An immigration bill substantially similar to the one which was vetoed by President Wilson a year ago has again been approved by both houses of Congress. The literacy test, which President Wilson objected to in the old bill, is contained in the new one. In their time Presidents Taft and Cleveland also vetoed bills containing similar provisions.

With some exceptions, this test will exclude "all aliens over sixteen years of age, physically capable of reading, who cannot read the English language or some other language or dialect, including Hebrew or Yiddish." One important class of persons excepted from the necessity of meeting this test is that class of persons seeking admission to the United States to avoid religious persecution in the country from which they have come, when that "persecution involves a restriction or denial to any class or sect of such alien of the means or opportunities of obtaining an education sufficient to comply with the literacy test hereinbefore provided." This clause in quotation is an amendment to the former bill and is an important addition.

The House voted for this bill by 308 to 87, and the Senate by 64 to 7. The support of the measure thus seems more than strong enough to make it a law over the President's veto. Nevertheless he ought to veto the proposal, for the literacy test is an un-American provision, entirely contrary to the traditional spirit of American government and American political philosophy.

PROHIBITION NEWS

Boston, on Tuesday, December 19, voted to remain a wet city by a majority of over twenty thousand. The prohibition question in Boston has been made a very live issue during the past few weeks because of the activities of Billy Sunday and the efforts of the Anti-Saloon League and many prominent citizens of Boston to turn the capital of Massachusetts into the dry column. On the list of those who signed the advertisements of the Massachusetts Anti-Saloon League are to be found such names as Dr. Charles W. Eliot, Bishop William Lawrence, Major Henry Lee Higginson, the Rev. Paul Revere Frothingham, Mr. B. Preston Clark, Mr. J. Randolph Coolidge, Jr., Dr. Richard C. Cabot, Dean Edmund S. Rousmaniere, Professor William Z. Ripley, Mr. Robert A. Woods, and the Rev. Dr. Elwood Worcester.

The election was naturally a serious disappointment to those who hoped to make Boston dry, for the wet majority was much larger than at the election a year ago. It was hoped that with the aid of Billy Sunday, who did so much to turn Michigan into the dry column, the dry forces might be victorious. That the drys even hoped to carry the city of Boston is perhaps significant of the change in the general attitude toward the prohibition question.

Meanwhile at Washington there is waging a controversy over the Sheppard Bill, designed to make the District of Columbia dry. An amendment to the Sheppard Bill designed to permit a referendum vote in the District of Columbia as to whether it shall go dry or not is, as we write on December 20, deadlocked in the Senate. Another amendment to this amendment, designed to permit women to vote on the liquor question if it is decided to allow a referendum, passed the Senate by a vote of nearly four to one. The Sheppard Bill has now been before the Senate for nearly two weeks, to the exclusion of other business. It is being backed by the Anti-Saloon League and the prohibition forces of the country.

It is generally supposed that the prohibition sentiment is much stronger in the West and South than in the East. Much evidence can be found, however, to prove that the sentiment for prohibition is stronger in the East than is generally supposed. New York State, for instance, a State which permits only one-fifth of its electorate to vote upon the liquor question, put out of business this last fall over six hundred liquor-selling places. This is two-thirds as many as were closed by Nebraska's vote for State-wide prohibition, nearly as many as went out of business in the entire State of Virginia on November 1, and about three times as many as will be closed by the vote in South Dakota at the last election.

The prohibition forces in New York are now united upon the passage of the Optional Prohibition Remonstrance Bill, which has already been described and strongly commended in these pages. The prohibition forces have also decided to support a State-wide prohibition referendum bill. Both bills will be simultaneously introduced in the Senate and the Assembly in New York and will be given a joint hearing.

It seems to us that the Optional Prohibition Remonstrance Bill, which gives to both men and women of the State a real voice as to whether or not the liquor business shall be permitted to continue, is as advanced a measure as is at present practical. It represents the result of the legislative experience of the Anti-Saloon League in many States and the practical experience of many of those upon whom has fallen the responsibility of enforcing the liquor laws of the country.

THE APPROACHING MUNICIPAL CAMPAIGN IN NEW YORK

A news article in the New York "Tribune" is authority for the statement that Republican leaders in New York City are preparing to support Mayor Mitchel, a Democrat elected on a fusion ticket, for re-election in 1917.

Since the "Tribune" does not give the names of these leaders, the report is perhaps to be regarded more as a "feeler" for public opinion than as a definite promise of action. It suggests, however, how important the next municipal campaign in New York City may be for the whole country.

The first and plainest question involved in the renomination and re-election of Mayor Mitchel is simply one of good government.

Is New York wise enough to return to office a Mayor who is both efficient and progressive, and to defeat Tammany in its inevitable attempt to regain control of that city's government?

The second question is of greater concern, perhaps, to the country as a whole.

Is the Republican leadership in New York State blind enough to attempt to elect a party candidate as Mayor of New York City at the expense of returning to power the old spoils system from which Mayor Mitchel and his administration have so largely and so happily freed the metropolis?

If the Republicans of New York permit this to be done, they will do much to confirm the opinion of their leadership which prevails throughout so large a section of the West.

PROFESSOR HUGO MÜNSTERBERG

The controversy over Professor Münsterberg's relations with Harvard University and his attitude towards the country in which he has been so long a distinguished guest came to a sudden and tragic conclusion on December 16. While lecturing before a class in Radcliffe College Professor Münsterberg was suddenly stricken and fell unconscious to the floor. He died twenty minutes afterward.

Hugo Münsterberg was born in Danzig, East Prussia, in 1863. He came to America in 1892 to take a chair of Psychology at Harvard. In 1910 and 1911 he was the Harvard Exchange Professor at the University of Berlin. In that year he organized the Amerika Institut of the German Government, and became its first director. Professor Münsterberg's work as a psychologist was not only of technical concern, but in recent years he did much to awaken a popular interest in his science. He wrote many magazine articles on psychology and its application to business and the furtherance of justice.

After the outbreak of the great war his articles and statements in defense of Germany excited bitter protest from many sources. There was no little demand that he should be asked to resign his chair at Harvard, but free speech is one of Harvard's most fundamental traditions, and the authorities of the University very wisely declined to ask for Professor Münsterberg's resignation. Professor Münsterberg explained his own position toward the United States in an article in the New York "Times" in September, 1915, in which he said that his views were not set forth as those of a German-American, but as those of a German. He said:

> I am a German and have never intended to be anything else. I did not leave Germany because I liked it less. I was professor at a German university when Harvard invited me to

develop here the interest for experimental psychology. I accepted the invitation at first for a short time only, and under the condition that I might stay here as a citizen of my Fatherland. Later, when many a European summons called me back, I resisted every temptation and stayed on, not only because the American scholars urged me to continue, but chiefly because I had become fascinated by the hope to help toward international amity.

While he supported German policies, Professor Münsterberg denounced many of the activities of the Teutonic hyphenates in this country. He condemned the forming of an alien party within the United States as "a crime against the spirit of true Americanism," and said that its results would reach far beyond the time of the war.

CHARLES BOOTH

By the death of the Rt. Hon. Charles Booth, at the age of seventy-six years, England and the world lose a foremost economist, for through his monumental "Life and Labor of the People of London" Mr. Booth made students of sociology everywhere his debtors.

The Booth Steamship Company of Liverpool is one of the well-known navigation enterprises which distinguish that port; it was formed by Mr. Booth and his brother, Alfred Allen Booth, who is now also the chairman of the Cunard Steamship Company and of the Anchor Line.

Charles Booth's experiences as a practical business man were of benefit to him in keeping him from any doctrinaire or academic view in his study of social problems. He judged those problems directly, personally, intimately, but always practically. When he began to take account of the economic condition of London in so far as the working classes were concerned, his conclusions were not those of the maker of a card catalogue or of the compiler of statistics. The "Life and Labor of the People of London," filling seventeen volumes and requiring for its preparation seventeen years of scientific investigation, is probably the most complete survey of the social condition of a great city ever attempted.

This is Mr. Booth's best-known publication, but there were others also of moment—"Pauperism," "The Aged Poor," "Old Age Pensions," and the succeeding series of volumes entitled "The Religious Influences of London." There was no question about Mr. Booth's belief in the practical as well as in the ideal virtues of religious conversion as a step toward self-help.

As with social workers in other countries, the unrest caused by inadequate information, leading to sudden strikes and much unnecessary desolation, made due impression on Mr. Booth's mind, as one may note from a recently published pamphlet by him on "Industrial Unrest and Trade Union Policy." He was always a supporter of industrial arbitration, and endeavored to show that no efficiency was worth the name which was not equally profitable to employer and employed. An example of Mr. Booth's style may be found in the conclusion to his "Life and Labor of the People of London:"

> Seventeen years and an equal number of volumes have been occupied with this inquiry. In as many pages I must now try to sum up the results: seventeen words would doubtless suffice did I know how to choose them aright. . . .
>
> We see life cursed by drink, brutality, and vice, and loaded down with ignorance and privilege, while industry is choked by its own blind struggles. . . . Improvement certainly there has been at every point, . . . but the gulf is still wide. . . .
>
> There are two distinct tasks: to raise the general level of existence, but especially the bottom level, is one; to increase the proportion of those who know how to use aright the means they have is another, and even a greater. But each effort should aid the other. . . . For the treatment of disease it is first necessary to establish the evidence as to its character, extent, and symptoms. Perhaps the qualities of mind which enable a man to make this inquiry are the least of all likely to give him that elevation of soul, sympathetic insight, and sublime confidence which must go to the making of a great regenerating teacher. I have made no attempt to teach; at the most I have ventured at an appeal to those whose part it is. . . . The dry bones that lie scattered over the long valley that we have traversed together lie before my reader. May some great soul, master of a subtler and nobler alchemy than mine, . . . make those dry bones live so that the streets of our Jerusalem may sing with joy!

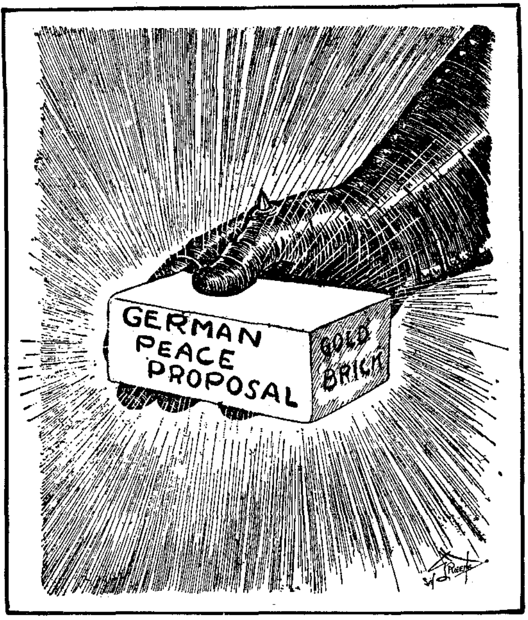
It is not surprising that such a critic of English life was drawn into the service of the state as President of the Royal Statistical Society, as a member of the Tariff Commission, and as Privy Councilor.

BENEDICT XV AND THE CHILDREN OF BELGIUM

Perhaps no act of the present Pope will be more gratefully remembered than his contribution to the relief of the children of Belgium. In a letter to Cardinal Gibbons

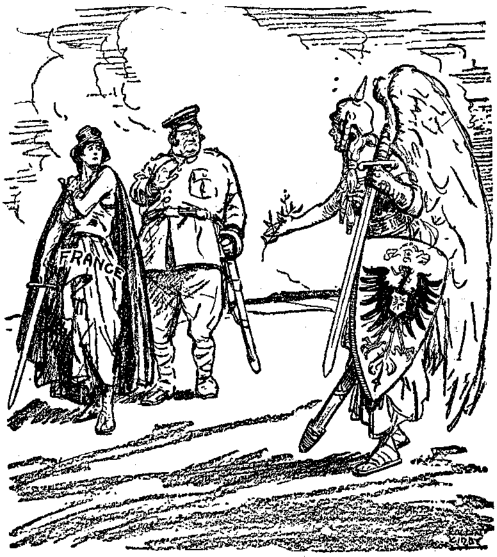
CARTOONS OF THE WEEK

Greene in the New York Evening Telegram


GERMAN PEACE PROPOSAL
GOLD BRICK

GERMANY'S PEACE OFFER

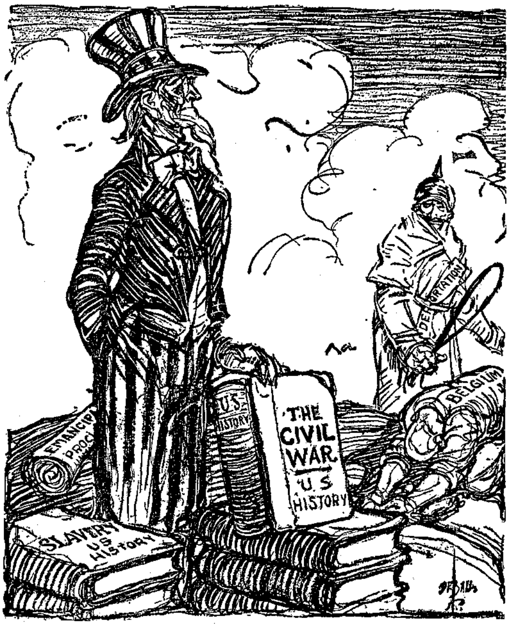
Kirby in the New York World



"NOT IN THAT COSTUME"

NOT ENTIRELY ACCEPTABLE

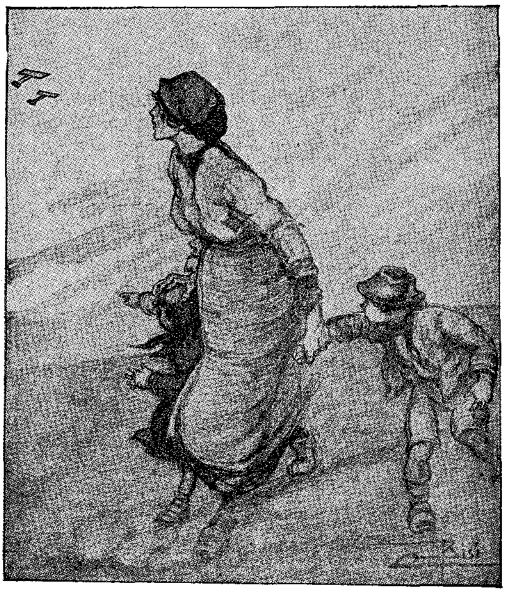
From the Chicago Evening Post


EMANCIP PROC
U.S. HISTORY
THE CIVIL WAR U.S HISTORY
SLAVERY U.S HISTORY
DEPORTATION
BELGIUM

Uncle Sam: "I decided in 1863 that that sort of thing is wrong—and I still think so."

THE DEPORTATION OF THE BELGIANS—AN ANALOGY

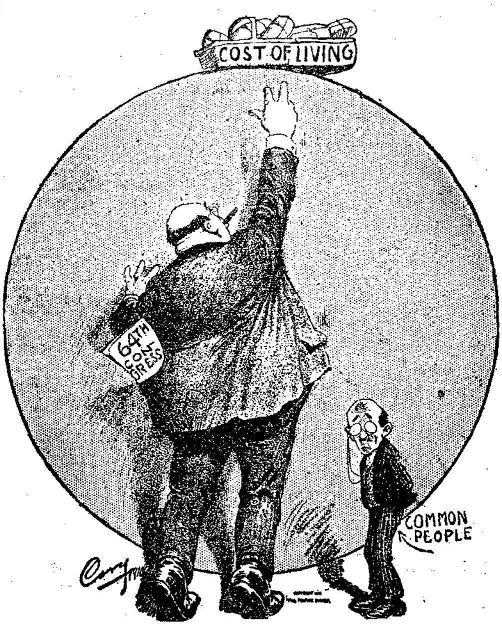
From Numero (Turin)



"Let us flee, my children—we are the military objective they are aiming at."

THE FUTILE AEROPLANE ATTACKS—THE NON-COMBATANTS SUFFER

From the Brooklyn Citizen


COST OF LIVING
64TH CONGRESS
COMMON PEOPLE

CAN HE REACH IT?

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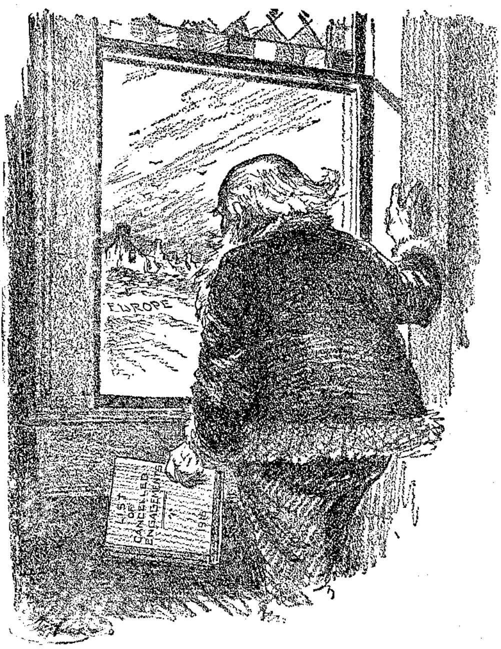
EVERYBODY HOPES HE WILL SOON SUCCEED

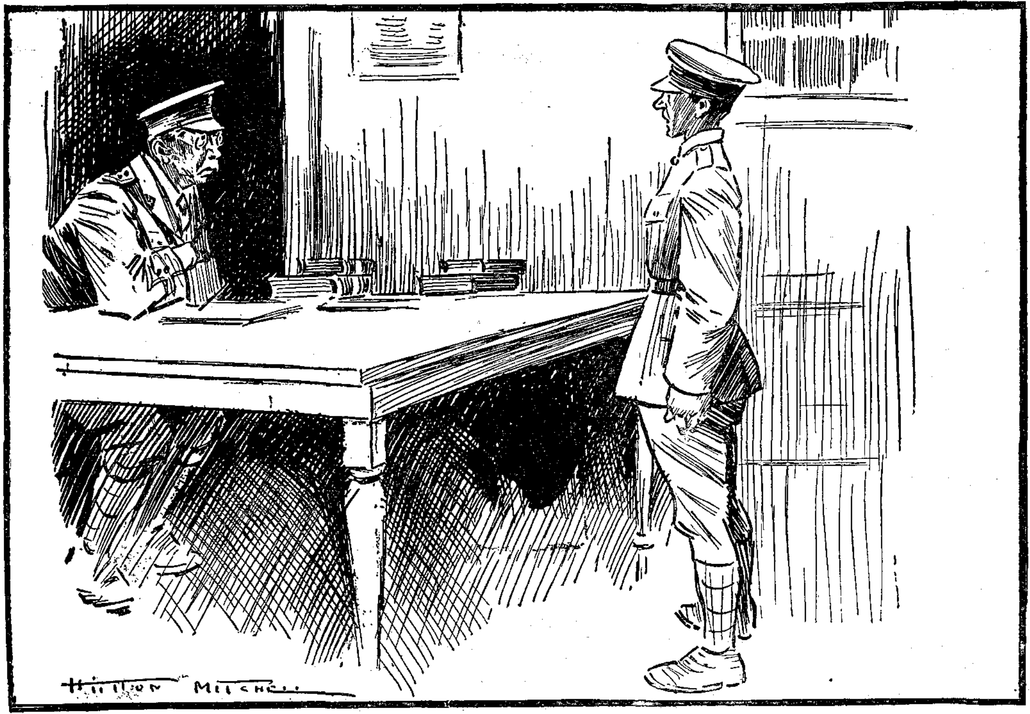
Sykes in the Philadelphia Evening Ledger


EUROPE
LIST OF CANCELLED ENGAGEMENTS 1916

EVEN SANTA CLAUS MUST FEEL SAD AT TIMES

THE WAR CASTS A GLOOM OVER THE HOLIDAYS

From the Bystander (*London*)


Hilton Mitchell

Officer to Tommy (up for overstaying leave): " But that's quite a different story from the one you told the Sergeant last night!"
Tommy: " Yessir; *I thought of a better one this morning!*"

A YOUNG STRATEGIST

he says, referring to a letter received from Mr. Herbert C. Hoover:

> Profound compassion of a father has again moved Our heart, when We read an important letter recently sent to Us by the distinguished Chairman of the praiseworthy Commission for Relief in Belgium, describing in few words, yet showing proof of most terrible reality, the pitiable situation of numerous Belgian children who, during two sad years, have been suffering from the lack of that proper nourishment necessary to sustain the tender existence of budding childhood.
>
> In most moving terms the Chairman has described how so many desolate families, after having given everything humanly possible to give, now find themselves with nothing left with which to appease the hunger of their little ones.
>
> He has made Us see, almost as if they were passing before these very eyes, dimmed with tears, the long file, continuously increasing, of Belgian infants waiting for their daily distribution of bread; unhappy little ones whose bodies, emaciated by lack of proper nutrition, bear not infrequently the impress of some deadly sickness brought about by their failure to receive the food which children of their age require.

In view of this condition of affairs Benedict XV acted:

> We have considered the work indicated so humanitarian and so holy that, in prompt compliance with the appeal addressed to Us, . . . We have decided to approve and recommend it, as We hereby do indorse it most heartily by these words to you, my Lord Cardinal, and through you to the illustrious members of the American Episcopate, to the clergy, and to every generous heart; but particularly to those children of America upon whom is based every hope of success for the plan devised by this beneficent institution. . . . We send you inclosed our contribution of ten thousand lire [about $2,000].

Cardinal Gibbons thereupon wrote to the Roman Catholic bishops. The Pope, he states, had written at the solicitation of the Chairman of the Commission for Relief in Belgium, "the only regular channel by which relief can enter Belgium, and which enjoys the full confidence of his Holiness." With Cardinal Gibbons, The Outlook also has no doubt that, as he says, "the touching appeal of his Holiness will be honored by generous contributions which will cheer his paternal heart and bring seasonable joy and comfort to the little sufferers of Belgium."

The Cardinal adds a very practical suggestion; if thoroughly carried out, it should immensely increase the size of the contributions: he proposes to the bishops that "the most efficient and prompt way to relieve the afflicted little ones would be obtained by a general collection in your jurisdiction."

We hope that the other churches of America will also be touched by the Pope's appeal and will rally in the efficacious way suggested by Cardinal Gibbons to the further support of the children of Belgium.

Those readers who wish to aid Belgian children should send checks to the Commission for Relief in Belgium, 120 Broadway, New York City.

A RAILWAY'S CHRISTMAS GIFT

Partly to meet the increased cost of living, which is being felt all over the country, and partly to share with their employees the great profits which have accrued to many American business enterprises during the past year, a number of large corporations have declared unusual Christmas bonuses to their employees.

Of the announcements of such bonuses one of the most interesting is the announcement of the Atchison, Topeka, and Santa Fé Railway. The Christmas gift of this corporation, amounting to about $2,750,000, has attracted particular attention because the members of the four railway brotherhoods, who were affected by the Adamson Eight-Hour Law, are not included in the distribution of the bonus. When asked for an explanation of this omission of the brotherhood members, Mr. Walker D. Hines, general counsel of the railway, made the following statement at our request:

"The recent distribution of ten per cent of a year's pay as additional compensation to Santa Fé employees two years or more in the service and receiving $2,500 or less per year naturally did not extend to employees whose compensation is fixed according to the schedules contained in the agreements formerly in effect with the four brotherhoods. Last March the four brotherhoods inaugurated a Nation-wide movement contemplating a permanent increase in wages. The brotherhoods requested the railroad companies throughout the United States to enter into a collective movement for the purpose of considering the demand through a joint committee representing all railroads concerned. The railroad companies complied with this request and appointed a joint committee, which is still in existence. Subsequently, when the railroad companies, acting through this joint committee, declined to grant the demands of the employees, but proposed arbitration, the employees rejected the proposal for arbitration and ordered a Nation-wide strike, which was to become effective on September 4. The strike was called off only because of the passage of the Adamson Act, which at the time of its passage the brotherhoods appeared to believe would grant in a substantial sense the principal part of their demands for increased wages. A case involving the constitutionality of that Act is now pending in the Supreme Court of the United States. It is generally understood that if the Act is declared unconstitutional the brotherhoods will continue their efforts to get permanent increases in compensation. Under such circumstances there is no reason why the Santa Fé distribution should include the employees who are working under the schedules affected by these demands of the brotherhoods, and, in fact, the brotherhoods, by their own act in getting the railroad companies throughout the country to handle this matter through a joint committee, have practically precluded this company from dealing separately with the question of compensating these classes of employees."

BONUSES VERSUS WAGES

The attitude of some of the leaders of organized labor toward this act of the railway unfortunately indicates that there are some labor leaders who regard organized labor as being a distinct and special class entitled to special privileges and rights of their own totally distinct from the rights of the community in general. When asked for his opinion, Mr. Hugh Frayne, general organizer of the American Federation of Labor in New York City, said:

"The giving of such bonuses is bad for all parties concerned. It is bad for the employees, because it destroys their self-respect to accept such gifts. It is a short-sighted policy for the employer, because the laborer feels that what he gets as a gift he really has earned, so the tendency of such donations is not to make the workingman satisfied with the wages he is getting, but to make him ask for higher wages.

"From the point of view of organized labor this bonus of the Santa Fé is just a sop to unorganized labor. Once again the timid laborer who dares not fight profits by the united action of his more courageous brothers. Who will say that this bonus would ever have been granted if the brotherhoods had not won their fight for higher pay? If there is a discrepancy between the new wage rates of the brotherhood members and the wages of the unorganized employees of the Santa Fé, I predict that not even this bonus will keep the unorganized men satisfied with their present salaries."

Mr. Hines, however, does dare to say that the bonus would have been granted whether the brotherhoods had won their fight or not. He declares that "the bonus was granted simply and solely as a result of the unusual economic conditions which, for the time being, at least, have both increased the cost of living of the railway's employees and greatly increased the earnings of the railway." The bonus is not to be considered a permanent annual feature, but there are some railway men who believe that it is the first step toward a permanent system of profit-sharing.

We hope so. As a temporary measure, to meet a temporary emergency, the gift of the Santa Fé Railway deserves praise. But there is much sound sense in Mr. Frayne's criticism of bonuses in general. In the long run, it is better for capital and for labor if all money which goes from employer to employee is transmitted as part of an understood arrangement between the two. Then no room is left for imputations of bribery on the one hand and charges of ingratitude on the other, and for other misunderstandings disastrous to the common cause of industry.

SANTA CLAUS THE COP

Santa Claus has worn a good many disguises in his long history, but he is playing a new rôle in New York City this year. He has been disguised as a policeman.

Police Commissioner Arthur Woods, who has given New York probably the best police administration it has ever had, is responsible for another good idea. It was his suggestion to turn the police stations of fifty-two of the city's eighty-seven precincts into halls of Christmas jollity when he learned that about twenty-five thousand children in the city would have no Christmas unless the police gave it to them.

The small boy and the policeman have always considered each other inevitable enemies and fair game, but Commissioner Woods wants this to stop. He thinks the boy, and the girl too, ought to be friends with the "cop." Hence the police Christmas, which has much more back of it than a mere impulse toward charity.

The sum which the Police Commissioner thought was necessary to put his idea into effect was $25,000. A small syndicate of his friends quietly went to work and underwrote $15,000 of this. But when they notified the Commissioner, he told them their help was superfluous, for the unorganized friends of the small boy and of his ancient enemy in the blue coat had already subscribed more than $36,000. Thus each of the twenty-five thousand children was assured of at least a dollar's worth of Christmas presents, including a toy and a box of candy, as well as a more useful article, such as a flannel shirt or a pair of woolen stockings. For this distribution there will be a Christmas tree in each station-house.

"We want every child in the city to be on intimate terms with the big man in uniform," says Commissioner Woods.

"A great deal of crime, especially juvenile crime, might never occur if every child was friends with a policeman and felt that the policeman was friends with him."

There is much truth in that. Not only juvenile crime but much adult crime would be eliminated by the co-operation of city children with the police. For the influence of such children with their parents is greater than many sociologists realize. The drunken mother and the dishonest father will go straighter if they know that their children are in open alliance with the forces of decency. Commissioner Woods has hit upon a big idea.

GEORGE GREY BARNARD'S STATUE OF LINCOLN

On December 11 George Grey Barnard's statue of Abraham Lincoln, a photograph of which appears in our picture section this week, was unveiled in the courtyard of the Union Theological Seminary in New York City, where it will be on exhibition until its removal to Cincinnati.

When Theodore Roosevelt saw it for the first time, he said, "I have always wished that I might see him; now I do." He expressed a universal impression. As it was seen a few days ago standing rock-like and impregnable in a cloud of snow whirled about on a bitter winter wind, the great lonely figure silhouetted against the storm seemed to gain an added touch of symbolism.

The fact that the sculptor built up his work solely and entirely from study of the life mask taken shortly after Lincoln's election is distinctly interesting. "It is all there," said Barnard, simply, "all that there is to know. For one hundred days I did nothing but study the life mask, studying it always in light," which is to say, considering the masses somewhat as a painter does instead of gauging shapes and forms in terms of measurement, as is the habit of many sculptors. "To most the life mask is a dead thing," the sculptor said; "to the artist it is life's architecture."

Art is a matter of relations, and in a real understanding of this fact lies such explanation as is traceable of the creative process which enabled the sculptor to reconstruct the whole figure of the man—the great, patient, powerful hands, the great feet, the sagging garments on the lean, slightly bowed figure, from his searching analysis of the life mask. The vision of those strong lineaments, worn and gnarled like an old tree, held the whole history of the man, the record of a life.

"Lincoln embodied the universal motherhood as no man has since Christ," said the sculptor. "You can see it in his great hands." Yet those same hands were strong enough to bend a horse-shoe straight. Lincoln was the strongest man on the frontier.

George Grey Barnard's work from the beginning of his career has been in the field of symbolic and commemorative sculpture. Upon this, his first portrait statue, he has brought to bear an allegorical largeness of treatment, a spiritual quality which has raised his Lincoln from the status of a portrait to that of the great symbolic figure of his country. For the unimaginative patriots who have no power to evoke mentally the simple figure of Lincoln, for the strange peoples among us, ignorant of the traditions and ideals of the country that produced him, the creative power of the American sculptor has revealed the vision of the real Liberator. The human appeal made through the eye is direct. Portrait sculpture can create response in people primitive or cultured. It approaches as closely as anything can to the art with universal appeal. So the most ignorant alien before Barnard's Lincoln may understand something of the American spirit and perhaps go away with some measure of the inspiration that lies in Lincoln's name.

THE DANISH WEST INDIES

The vote of the people of Denmark is one more important step toward making the three Danish West Indian Islands of St. Croix, St. John, and St. Thomas the property of the United States. The Danes voted 283,694 in favor of selling us the islands and 157,596 against such action. One feature that lent interest to the vote was that this was the first time the Danish women have cast their ballots on a question of national policy, although for several years they have been voting in municipal elections. Not enough details of the voting have yet been received for the American public to know just how the women divided.

Before the islands can become our property it still remains for the Danish Parliament to ratify the treaty of transference. The selling price established in the treaty is $25,000,000.

THE LANE COUNTY REPORT

Religious workers are beginning to take a more comprehensive view of the social and economic conditions surrounding them. They are now realizing that those conditions are bound up in their own failure or success.

For instance, take Lane County, Oregon. Two-thirds of the population is directly dependent upon agriculture for its livelihood, and more than this proportion is indirectly dependent upon it. The ultimate future of most of the churches in the kind of territory of which Lane County is an example depends upon agriculture as an industry. Hence, in its survey of the county, the first recommendation of the Presbyterian Country Church Work Committee is that the churches in similar regions should interest themselves directly in agriculture. It says of these churches that they should "promote sound and permanent agriculture as a foundation of organized piety. Ministers should study the agricultural problems of their communities, acting as local agents of the work of the County Farm Adviser. They should preach often from the Old Testament the splendid appeal, 'Behold, I have set the land before you.'"

The population of Lane County consists of small scattered groups in isolated valleys; of reasonably accessible communities; of lumber mill communities built up around a lumber camp whose future depends upon the maintenance of that one industry; of well-developed farming communities; of rural villages; of larger towns; finally, of those communities which have outlived their usefulness because the industry or the need for which they were established no longer exists.

The general intellectual level of most of the communities in Lane County, so the report affirms, is high, and the opportunities for community gatherings of various sorts for the discussion of community concerns and for various forms of community activities are more than usually numerous.

These are the social and economic conditions facing the working efficiency of the churches in that county. There are two sides to the problem of that efficiency, asserts the compiler of the report: first, the larger problem of missionary statesmanship which concerns the general mapping out and development of the field as a whole; second, the problem of the development and administration of the local church. The former is, of course, the primary problem.

THE CHURCH AND THE COMMUNITY

The history of Lane County shows that about one out of every five churches established has been allowed to lapse, while many of those which still live are without hope for future strength. Why? Because the general policy has been to give communities the minimum of religious service and to permit division on denominational lines, "apparently more for the purpose of maintaining a denominational claim against the time when the community will have developed strength than through any hope of accomplishing results of immediate value to the community." Twenty denominations are represented in the county.

The second sorry fact is that a minority of the churches made most of the gain; for "more than a fourth of the churches ended the year weaker than at its beginning, while practically a third marked time during the year; something less than a third of the total number made a substantial gain." Why was this? A prime reason is because the churches have not been connected enough with community problems. Whatever concerns the welfare of the community concerns the welfare of the church. But many of the Lane County churches have been so conducted that they had "practically no relation to any community problem outside of the problem of maintaining their own special religious work." Some churches indeed did concern themselves with certain community problems, but these largely limited that concern to the amusement problem, the problem of Sunday observance, and the temperance problem.

Then there was another reason for failure in full religious life; many churches were served by non-resident ministers, and in the churches served by resident ministers a number combined the ministry with some other employment.

What is needed? It is thus summarized in the survey:

> We need the type of church that can fairly be called a community church, a church which views its primary mission as the upbuilding of the community in the interests of the kingdom; which views it as a part of that task to advance every community interest, and to discourage whatever would retard the development, and which is concerned with the organization of the direction to good ends of community interest and feeling. . . .
>
> We need an inquiry into the social and economic as well as religious justification of every existing organization.
>
> With this should go an interdenominational agreement to abandon needless . . . organizations, an agreement which would refer also to future development and expansion. . . .
>
> We need a well-prepared and adequately supported, a full time, a resident and permanent pastorate, one man to one parish.

The report concludes:

> The survey shows that the county enjoys several lines of rather high development, but religion is not one of them. The churches are inferior to several other types of community organizations. They should be improved in kind. The time has passed for increasing their number. A new standard of church life should be exemplified. It is not necessary to recommend measures for reducing the number of small churches. They will die of themselves. The people of Oregon are practical, and prompt is the demise of the useless church.
>
> It is, however, important to establish the useful church, rightly located, served by an educated resident minister, well supported, giving his whole life to his people, interested in the cordial social life of the county; practical and foresighted in promoting the solid welfare of a land-owning people, and so of the Church of Christ.

The history of the religious life of this Oregon county is the history of the life of many another region in the United States. Hence the Lane County report should be heeded everywhere.

THE NATIONAL GUARD

How the Guard as a whole views the attempt to put the Guard in the first line of National defense is suggested by an editorial in a recent number of the "Seventh Regiment Gazette," the official organ of the famous Seventh Regiment of New York City.

The "Gazette" discusses frankly the attitude which most Guardsmen have maintained towards their military training in the past. The "Gazette" then goes on to define the attitude of Guardsmen towards their obligations in the present and in the future. The editor of the "Gazette" claims that his views represent not only the attitude of the soldiers in the Seventh, but of all classes of organizations in all States. As the Seventh has just returned from the border, perhaps the editor of its journal can speak with authority on this subject.

Of the history of the Guard in the past the editor of the "Gazette" truly says:

> For over a hundred years the members of the organized militia of the United States, generation after generation, have performed their service with the idea of pleasant companionship, or because of a liking for a smattering of military life, or for social reasons, or—especially in later years—with a worthy ambition to prepare themselves in a military way for efficient service. The idea of active service calling upon their real patriotism has been a remote one; but always—and this is important—on the assumption that they would gladly answer the call when the country needed them.

As to the recent legislation for the army he says:

> We of the Seventh felt that the military pay bill and the Federalization scheme were great mistakes. The rank and file of the National Guard throughout the country had no voice in the matter. A few State officers of high rank, influential at Washington, turned the trick, and before the bill became a law the Guard became victims of its provisions as a result of the unexpected mobilization.

As to the effect of the present legislation upon the future of the Guard, he continues:

> There is no question but that, if the present legislation stands as it is to-day, it will only take four years before the National Guard will be so reduced in numbers that it will be disbanded. This is a broad and sweeping statement, but the only conclusion that can be drawn from the facts.

The most interesting feature of this comment is the fact that the journal of the

Seventh Regiment sees in the dissolution of the Guard only one thing, and that it states as follows:

> All this may be a good thing for the country in bringing us more quickly to the only really sensible state of preparedness—universal training.

Perhaps after the Seventh has been back from the border a little longer some of its pessimism may have disappeared, though we hardly think that the dissatisfaction with our present military system can be classed under that head. It sounds to us more like hard common sense.

LABOR IN CONTINUOUS INDUSTRIES

The Lackawanna Steel Company, operating at Lackawanna, near Buffalo, makes steel rails and other products which represent a continuous industry. That is to say, the company must keep its furnaces hot at all times, otherwise their cooling and subsequent heating up would shatter the brick. A reheating would require from twenty-four to thirty-six hours. If the fires are allowed to die down and the furnaces then reheated, the plant could not be in active operation more than five days a week, and the cost of production would be increased by about a third plus the necessary increase on account of the more frequent building caused by the shattered roofs and walls. Even more especially is a continuous industry to be noted in the by-product coke ovens; if their temperature drops, a delay of from one to five days is caused before they can be again brought to the proper coking temperature.

The New York State "One-Day-of-Rest-in-Seven Law," passed in 1913, provides one day of rest a week for all employees unless "practical difficulties or unnecessary hardship" obtain; if they do, a law empowers the State Industrial Board to make a necessary variation from the requirements of the Act to secure substantial justice.

The Lackawanna Company, appearing through its counsel before the Industrial Board, admitted that during slack times there is little difficulty in complying with the law, but stated that during the present stress caused by war orders its operation was attended with such "practical difficulties or unnecessary hardship" as to make it impossible strictly to obey the law; that no competitor of the company under present conditions gives its men one day of rest in seven—though the United States Steel Corporation attempted to do so, with the shortage of men, it no longer observes the practice; that it would discriminate against the New York State steel plants to compel them to meet the competition of adjoining States, none of which have such legal requirements; that at present, owing to the scarcity of labor, the Lackawanna Company, the only concern making steel rails in New York State, cannot obtain sufficient men to permit one day's rest in seven for all employees, and hence petitioned the Industrial Board for relief.

On the other hand, there appeared in opposition representatives of the Association for Labor Legislation, the Consumers' League, and other bodies. They conceded that the Lackawanna Steel Company represents a continuous industry in many of its departments, and did not object to the operation of these departments seven days a week, but did object to working all the men continuously. To the scarcity of labor plea they replied that all the possibilities had not been exhausted. Moreover, they contended that, if exemption were granted to this company, other continuous industries in the State would doubtless ask for similar exemption.

Under these circumstances the Commission not unnaturally decided against the company.

The decision is noteworthy, coming as it does closely after the report of the Health of Munitions Workers Committee in England, which indicated the eight-hour shift as a time schedule best calculated to bring about ultimate industrial welfare (like other steel companies, the Lackawanna works its men twelve hours a day), and held that "if the maximum output is to be secured and maintained for any length of time a weekly period of rest must be allowed."

The one-day-of-rest-in-seven principle would also seem to be a necessary part of our own general provisions for National industrial preparedness, even though it may cause apparent hardship here and there.

The humanitarian side of this question is, of course, the more important, but even on the economic side it must be seen that the longer day and the continuous week produce ultimate exhaustion and financial loss.

THE SEQUEL OF THE PANAMA CONGRESS

The Congress for Christian Work in Latin America laid a foundation to be built upon by regional congresses. Seven of these have been held in Porto Rico, Baranquilla (Colombia), Lima, Santiago, Buenos Aires, and Rio de Janeiro. A deputation of some twenty-five leaders left Panama to conduct these. We have already reported the Porto Rico Congress. An illustrated pamphlet by Dr. A. W. Halsey, leader of the deputation, gives encouraging reports of four others at strategic centers.

At Lima the local committee had, with some doubt of the result, called a mass-meeting at the Mazzi Theater. It was but four months since the Peruvian Congress had decreed religious liberty, though bitterly opposed. The great theater was crowded. Addresses pleading for toleration, education of the masses, religious liberty, character formed by the teaching of Christ, and the development of a pure national life were enthusiastically applauded.

The Congress at Santiago was unique. The Presbyterian church was crowded to the doors till late at night. The next evening one of the finest theaters was filled from the pit to the top gallery. A signed article by a non-evangelical in " La Union " calls it " a revelation," " the assembly, carried away by its emotions, applauding wildly." Subsequently a large meeting for students was held by the Congress in the hall of the University of Chile.

As in Peru, so in Chile, bad moral conditions were found—Sundays and Mondays among the working classes " days of drunken debauchery " and " the rate of illegitimacy distressingly high." " The evangelicals," said a Catholic business man to Dr. Halsey, " are good people. They do not drink, are industrious, thrifty, and make good citizens ; but that is not religion."

Similar experiences were repeated elsewhere. At Buenos Aires the third Congress included the Republics of Argentina, Paraguay, and Uruguay, a highly influential group. It received distinguished attention from public officials and other prominent citizens. The fourth Congress, at Rio de Janeiro, found the Evangelical church almost lost in immense Brazil. The most hopeful sign was " the splendid character of the men in the Brazilian ministry, and the representative men who, not openly uniting with the Evangelical church, are standing by the Evangelicals."

One such is Dr. José Carlos Rodrigues, a man of wide learning, with the best private library in Brazil, and representing its probably most influential newspaper. Visiting the Congress and accepting his election as corresponding member, he spoke for half an hour in a memorable plea for the study of the Bible as the only hope of Brazil.

American trade is alert for gainful relations with Latin America. Should not American churches be alert to its moral and religious needs ? The Panama deputation thither has been greeted with an auspicious welcome.

FRANZ JOSEF AND FRITZ KREISLER

In an interview lately published in the New York " Times " Mr. Fritz Kreisler, the eminent Austrian violinist, has a number of interesting things to say about the late Austrian Emperor. " Everybody in Austria knew the Emperor and loved him," affirmed Mr. Kreisler first of all. " I have played for him, and always after the hifalutin music which his masters of ceremonies thought they must have on the Court concert programme he would come to me as simply as any child, and in a half-apologetic whisper, as if he were afraid of those same masters of ceremonies, ask me to play simple little tunes that he knew and understood."

Mr. Kreisler then proceeded to describe certain characteristics, to show that the Emperor " had the same qualities that make children love the right sort of a grandfather, only he was that sort of a grandfather to all of his people." The artist proceeded :

> The farmers knew that as well as anybody else, and the demands which they and others made on his generosity were the despair of his treasurers, for he insisted on knowing personally about all that appealed to him, and he never denied a request for assistance.
>
> A farmer would write that his cow had died and that nobody would lend him money to buy another—wouldn't the Emperor please buy one for him ? And the Emperor always would, and get ample compensation in chuckling over the queer letter. He loved to hunt up to the time that he was a very old man, and the peasants would waylay him on the mountain and in the forest to make their pleas.
>
> He never carried money, but gave to each petitioner his personal I O U, and all sorts of queer odds and ends of bits of paper bags and whatnot, with the Emperor's initials, would be presented after a hunting trip for payment.

As is well known, Franz Josef was a hard worker and no lover of luxury. " All his life," said Mr. Kreisler, "he slept on a camp cot, and in the same very bare apartment was his working table, where he spent the greater part of his time." Speaking of this apartment, the violinist added:

> One of the things in his own room was a small cabinet containing the first pair of shoes worn by each of his children, and many other little family remembrances. . . .
>
> The birthdays of all his relatives and friends were marked a year ahead on his calendar, and to each of them, as the date came round, he always wrote a personal letter.
>
> Another annual custom of the Emperor was to give an uncut, unset diamond to every woman, young or old, in the Hapsburg family on Christmas.

Turning to American comment on the Emperor, this Austrian artist, who is also an Austrian soldier and patriot (he has seen severe service in the war and is now supporting some fifteen hundred men and women artists in the capitals of Europe), observed:

> The American papers have been very bitter. All the editorial writers have seemed to say to themselves before going at their task: "Now we must not show this dead Emperor any pity or any sympathy because he was an old man, because he is now a dead man. We must say nothing good of him. He was bad. He was cruel. He was reactionary. He caused the war."

On the contrary, Mr. Kreisler ascribes the responsibility for the war to Russia, and concludes:

> It was Russia that had the motive—possession of an ice-free port. It was a Russian officer who trained the assassin in pistol practice before the killing of the Archduke Francis Ferdinand at Sarajevo. It is a cruel mistake to hold the old man who has just died responsible for all the suffering that has come to the world in the last two years. It must be left for history alone to render definitive judgment concerning the personality and the work of the late Emperor, a personality by which the entire history of the Austro-Hungarian monarchy has been decisively influenced.

Mr. Kreisler asserted that the Poles, Ruthenians, Czechs, Slovenes, Croats, Rumanians, and Italians within the dual Empire all owed much to the policy of free national development adopted by Kaiser Francis Joseph.

Even those who do not agree with Mr. Kreisler as to the cause of the war can appreciate this great artist's chivalry and his tribute to his Emperor.

THE PEACE PROPOSALS

On December 12 a note was sent by the German Government to certain neutral Powers to be by them presented to the Allied Powers, inviting them "to enter forthwith into peace negotiations." This note declared that "the propositions which they [the Central Powers] bring forward for such negotiations, and which have for their object a guarantee of the existence, of the honor and liberty of evolution for their nations, are, according to their firm belief, an appropriate basis for the establishment of a lasting peace." But when this note was published, it was found that it contained no proposals, no suggestions even, of any basis upon which such negotiations for peace could be conducted. "What," asks Mr. Lloyd George in his address to Parliament, "are the proposals? There are none."

To this invitation to discuss terms of peace which are not defined nor even suggested the unanimous answer of the Allies is conveyed by two sentences from Lloyd George's memorable address: "We will wait until we hear what terms and guarantees the German Government offer other than those, better than those, surer than those which she so lightly broke. And meanwhile we shall put our trust in our unbroken army rather than in broken faith."

It was a memorable event even for a nation whose history is crowded with memorable events when the most democratic Prime Minister England has ever possessed rose in his seat to declare to a house packed to its utmost capacity what Germany proposed and what answer the English Government would make. That he would speak for the Allies as well as for the English people was anticipated. That his speech might determine the question whether the most terrible military conflict the world has ever seen would cease or would continue was expected. When it was announced that Germany had a peace proposal to make, the world waited with breathless interest to learn what Germany proposed, what the Allies would reply; and the world heard with astonishment that Germany proposed nothing, and with, we hope and believe, almost universal satisfaction that the Allies have, through Lloyd George, proposed a basis on which alone they will enter into peace negotiations: "Complete restitution, full reparation, and effectual guarantees." And again: "The Allies entered this war to defend Europe against the aggression of Prussian military domination, and, having begun it, they must insist that the only end is the most complete effective guarantee against the possibility of that caste ever again disturbing the peace of Europe."

We shall not make the impossible attempt to furnish an abstract of this memorable address. It was worthy of the occasion. It was the speech of a great statesman, alike in the prompt and careful preparation which preceded it, in the spirit which animated it, in the sentences compact with the feeling of justice and liberty which electrified it, in the courageous action to which it pledged the administration and summoned the nation.

The time spent by the Premier in his sick-bed had been so well used, either by or for him, in an interchange of views with France, Italy, and Russia, that he was able to say in the opening of his address, "The answer given by this Government will be given in full accord with all our allies."

The spirit of a courageous statesman appears in his summons to his nation to a life of continuous, daily, practical self-sacrifice:

> Let the nation as a whole place its comforts, its luxuries, its indulgences, its elegancies, on the national altar, consecrated by such sacrifices as these men have made—let us proclaim during the war a national Lent; the nation will be better and stronger for it, mentally and morally as well as physically. It will strengthen its fiber and ennoble its spirit.

Some of his sentences are like the call of the trumpet to battle: "We have," he says, "an absolutely new army—new men, new officers taken from schools, boys from schools, from colleges, from counting-houses, never trained to war, never thought of war; many perhaps never handled a weapon of war; generals never given an opportunity of handling great masses of men. They have faced the greatest army in the world, the greatest army the world has ever seen, the best equipped, the best trained, and they have beaten them, beaten them, beaten them."

It would be difficult to conceive a more skillful, rapier-like thrust against the claim of Germany that she is fighting in self-defense: "Self-defense, menaced, I suppose, by the overwhelming armies of Belgium. I suppose the Germans had been intimidated into invading Belgium and burning Belgian cities and villages, into massacring thousands of inhabitants, old and young, into carrying the survivors into bondage."

And yet through all his speech breathes the spirit of the peacemaker. It is apparent in the appeals to the people:

> If in this war I have paid scant heed to the call of party, it is because I realized from the moment the Prussian cannon hurled death at a peaceable and inoffensive little country that a challenge had been sent to civilization to decide an issue higher than party, deeper than party, . . . wider than all parties. . . .
>
> I tried once to remove the misunderstanding between England and Ireland. I was drenched with suspicion of Irishmen by Englishmen and of Englishmen by Irishmen, and, worse and most fatal of all, suspicion by Irishmen of Irishmen. It was a quagmire of distrust which clogged my footsteps and made progress impossible. That is the real enemy of Ireland. If that could be slain, I believe it would accomplish an act of reconciliation that would make Ireland greater and Britain greater, and make the United Kingdom and the Empire greater than they ever were before.

This pacific spirit appears also in Mr. Lloyd George's proclamation to the world: "Any man or set of men who wantonly or without sufficient cause prolonged a terrible conflict like this would have on his soul a crime that oceans could not cleanse." And it appears also in the clear implication of his speech that if Germany will make restitution of captured territory, reparation for wrongs perpetrated, and effectual guarantees for the future peace of Europe and its relief from the burden of militarism, other questions may be made the subject of pacific negotiations.

In 1864 some self-appointed pacifists from the South united with Horace Greeley, a self-appointed pacifist from the North, in asking Mr. Lincoln to enter into peace negotiations with the Southern Confederacy. To them he made the reply that he would enter into negotiations with any delegation authorized to speak for the Southern Confederacy who would pledge beforehand as a basis for that peace the restoration of the Union and the abolition of slavery. It is in the spirit of Abraham Lincoln that Lloyd George has replied to the invitation of Germany to peace parleys. All Americans who honor the memory of Abraham Lincoln must honor the spirit in which Lloyd George, speaking for England, France, Italy, and Russia, has replied to the astute but unreal invitation of Germany for peace negotiations.

CONGRESS AND THE PERIODICALS

The Postal Committee of the House of Representatives in Congress has incorporated in the Postal Appropriation Bill a clause increasing the postage on periodicals, the charge to be made according to what is called the "zone system."

All weekly and monthly periodicals are now mailed to subscribers by what is known as "bulk postage." Single copies are not stamped, but the entire edition is weighed in the post-office from which the periodical is sent, and the publishers pay one cent a pound. For several years the Post-Office Department has contended that this rate is too low, and we are inclined to think that it is. When previous attempts have been made in Congress to increase this bulk postage on periodicals, we have taken the ground in these pages that a reasonable increase would not be unjust, provided it was imposed equally on all newspapers and periodicals alike. The publishers of periodicals have several grounds for objecting to the bill now before the House. Among these objections are the following:

1. It was framed and approved by the Postal Committee practically in secret. The periodical publishers did not know about it and did not have an opportunity to appear before the Committee.

2. It is a rider on an appropriation bill, and changes in administration ought not to be made in this way. Disagreement on prolonged discussion of such riders endangers the prompt passage of legitimate appropriations. Any change in an existing law which will affect seriously the interests of a very large number of citizens should be considered and acted upon independently.

3. If now enacted, it will impose upon periodicals a very large added expense (in the case of The Outlook, as nearly as we can calculate, it will amount to an additional bill for postage of at least fifty thousand dollars) at a time when they have made most of their contracts with present subscribers for the ensuing year. We are now contracting to deliver The Outlook for one year to each subscriber for three dollars, without being forewarned by the Government that what is virtually a tax of fifty cents per subscriber is to be imposed upon us. Our experience simply illustrates that of all periodicals.

4. The zone system is unjust to the subscriber. Periodical news, information, and literature is now as essential to our social system as communication by letters. If the zone system is adopted, many periodicals will either have to go out of business or add a charge for postage, as they now add a charge to the regular subscription price for mailing copies to foreign countries. Is it equitable that a reader in California should pay more for his monthly magazine or weekly paper of National circulation than a reader in New York? If it is, it is equally equitable that he should pay more for mailing a letter to a New York friend than to a San Francisco friend.

In addition to these objections in equity to the system and rate of increased postage proposed by the Postal Committee of Congress, there is a very decided economic objection. The Congressional Postal Committee is rightly doing everything it can to promote the efficiency, to keep down the expense, and to increase the earnings of the post-office. Now every one knows that the first-class letter postage is the profitable branch of our post-office business. Has the Congressional Postal Committee given sufficient thought to the fact that the National monthly and weekly periodicals are among the greatest feeders in the country of first-class postage? Whatever the Government does to cripple the periodicals will cripple first-class postage.

During the last fiscal year there were mailed from this office over three hundred thousand pieces of first-class mail matter under two-cent postage in connection with our subscription and advertising business. Our advertisers, subscribers, and editorial correspondents probably mailed us an equal number. Moreover, while purchases resulting from advertising in daily newspapers are made in person very largely, purchases resulting from advertising in weekly and monthly periodicals are made very largely by mail. It is very easy to see from the figures named above that the total letter postage resulting from the business of all the weekly and monthly periodicals of this country is very large indeed.

For these reasons the readers of periodicals have a stake in this question not merely as subscribers but as citizens. They may well join with the publishers of periodicals in asking Congress to give a more careful consideration to this question than it has so far done. If Congress would abandon the zone postage idea and would enact a bill increasing the bulk postage of periodicals to even double its present amount, none of the increase, however, to take effect before January 1, 1918, thus giving the periodicals an opportunity to arrange to meet the burden, there would be much less opposition than there is at present.

A PROTEST IN BEHALF OF BELGIUM

On Friday evening, December 15, Carnegie Hall, in New York City, was packed with an audience gathered to protest against the barbaric treatment to which Germany is subjecting the Belgians. In this action New York followed the action of Boston, which held a similar meeting of protest in Tremont Temple on November 28.

Stirring and outspoken addresses were made at the Carnegie Hall meeting by Dr. Manning, rector of Trinity Church, New York; by James M. Beck, the foremost American authority on the international law broken by the invasion of Belgium; by Judge Alton B. Parker, Democratic candidate for President of the United States in 1904; and by ex-Senator and ex-Secretary of State Elihu Root. Letters and telegrams denouncing Germany's treatment of Belgium were read from Archbishop Ireland and Bishop O'Gorman of the Roman Catholic Church, and from Joseph H. Choate and Theodore Roosevelt. In making the following statement of the events which have aroused the righteous wrath of all those to whom the facts have been made known we quote some sentences from the speeches of the evening.

Belgium, by solemn treaty, to which both Germany and France were partners, agreed to preserve her neutrality, and not allow her soil to be used as a highway for invading armies from either France against Germany, or Germany against France. When Germany violated her solemn pledge and asked Belgium to unite with her in that violation and allow a free passage to an invading army, Belgium refused. For this refusal to be false to her pledged word her land has been devastated, her cities burned, her cathedrals, libraries, and other public buildings demolished, her homes desolated and destroyed, her cities compelled to make pecuniary contributions to the robber nation which occupied her territory. Invited by Germany and inspired by pity for this robbed and despoiled and famine-stricken people, France and England contributed for their relief more than two hundred million dollars, and the United States, by private contributions, approximately ten millions. While thus the "rest of the world, belligerents and neutrals, were sending a stream of gifts for the relief of the Belgian people, Germany, in violation of every principle of international law and every dictate of humanity, was stripping the Belgian people of their resources." It took from them the very means by which they lived and worked. It left them in such destitution that "universal poverty is now their portion, for of a population of seven millions three millions daily wait in the bread line for sufficient food to keep alive." Now to all this is added the deportation of her people—"the transplanting of over a hundred thousand Belgian men into a condition of state slavery in Germany, where their labor is to be used to aid in the conquest of their fellow-countrymen."

All this has been done, not only in violation of international law and in flagrant disregard of the rights of humanity, but in violation of Germany's treaty with America. This Mr. Root in his address made perfectly clear. By a convention signed at The Hague and ratified by every Power that is now engaged in the European war as well as by ourselves, it is the duty of the conqueror "to re-establish and insure, as far as possible, public order and safety, while respecting, unless absolutely prevented, the laws in force in the country;" it further provided that "family honors and rights, individual lives and private property, as well as religious convictions and liberty, must be respected." "This law," said Mr. Root, "is our law. . . . We have a right to have it observed, and it is our duty to our children and to our country that we shall not remain silent in the face of open, flagrant, contemptuous disregard and violation of it."

What can we do?

Citizens can gather in every town and city in the United States to learn what Germany is doing, to be instructed concerning her violation of American rights, and to be aroused to a spirit of resentment and protest.

It can comply with the counsel of the Rev. Dr. William T. Manning, rector of Trinity Church, of New York City:

> We pledge to the President the unqualified support of all right-thinking people of every party, creed, and name if he will now demand in the name of America, in the name of humanity, and in the name of God that these unheard-

of crimes against the brave people of Belgium shall immediately cease, and that those who have already been carried into slavery shall be set free and allowed at least the poor comfort of returning to their broken families and their devastated homes.

We can urge our Government to comply with the counsel of Joseph H. Choate and James M. Beck:

> It is in the power of the United States, without recourse to arms, to bring this system of oppression to an end. All that is necessary is for the President of the United States to instruct our representative in Berlin to notify the German Government that, unless it gives a prompt assurance that the forcible deportation of Belgians to Germany shall immediately cease, the German Ambassador will be given his passports. Germany cannot, dare not, quarrel with this country in this crisis.

But the United States can do more than this. It can break off, not merely political, but commercial relations with Germany; it can refuse to ship goods to Germany; it can refuse to receive goods from German ports; and it can invite all the other neutral Powers of the world to join with it in such an international boycott.

Such an embargo would make absolute the present imperfect blockade of Germany. It would require for its enforcement no warships. It would not be an act of war. It would not violate our treaty obligations with Germany, since Germany's action, in violation of her sacred treaty with us, deprives her of the right to demand anything of us under our treaties with her. And it would be a quicker road to international peace than any mediation which we could propose or any parleys between the combatants which we could help to promote.

NATIONAL PROHIBITION—WHAT FORM SHOULD IT TAKE?

By WILLIAM H. ANDERSON

STATE SUPERINTENDENT ANTI-SALOON LEAGUE OF NEW YORK

IT has been suggested that the amendment to the Constitution of the United States respecting National prohibition of the liquor traffic should be in such form as to permit Congress to prohibit the traffic at some future date, rather than take a form under which the people prohibit it directly and forthwith—that is, that it should follow the form of the Income Tax Amendment rather than the Slavery Amendment.

This proposition seems to overlook the essential fact that the prohibition issue is inherently akin to the slavery question, but in no sense analogous to the income tax case. The Income Tax Amendment was adopted for the purpose of *allowing* something, but the prohibition amendment is designed to *prevent* something. The income tax proposition is comparable, in terms applicable to the liquor question, to the establishment of a system of license, regulation, and taxation. An amendment involving such aspect of the liquor question, in case such power did not already exist, would of necessity take the permissive form. But the prohibition amendment proposition before the country to-day is headed in the other direction.

The advocates of the permissive form say that the function of a constitution is "the definition, division, and delegation of power"—that is, to permit Congress to pass laws according to a well-defined policy. Then surely the declaration of a fundamental policy of prohibition is proper according to this standard.

Perhaps this attitude is based upon earlier and erroneous conceptions of what a prohibition amendment was likely to be. It would be hopeless to try to define in an amendment the purposes, medicinal, sacramental, chemical, mechanical, etc., for which alcoholic liquors might still be made and sold after its adoption, or to provide the amounts that might be sold to an individual, or the frequency of such sales, or any of the various other things that readily suggest themselves. But the form of amendment actually before Congress is in full as follows:

ARTICLE —

> Section 1. The sale, manufacture for sale, transportation for sale, importation for sale, of intoxicating liquors for beverage purposes in the United States and all territory subject to the jurisdiction thereof, and exportation thereof, are forever prohibited.

Section 2. The Congress or the States shall have power independently or concurrently to enforce this article by all needful legislation.

This merely prohibits the *sale*, and the things incidental to *sale*, for *beverage* purposes, and gives Congress power to pass further legislation consistent with the defined policy of restriction. That is, in fact it both "defines power" as the advocates of the permissive form urge, on the one hand, and "delegates" the details to Congress as they advise, on the other.

This form of amendment, because of its simplicity and reasonableness, was approved by an almost unanimous vote at an open conference of all of the temperance agencies of the Nation, and was adopted by the National Prohibition Amendment Commission created by that conference with power to act. The overwhelming majority of the temperance forces are united on it. The real issue is that amendment or nothing.

The permissive form of amendment which has been suggested would be opposed just as hard by the liquor interests and would keep the liquor question in National politics, making it the dominant issue in the election of members of Congress for years after its adoption, whereas the mere submission by Congress to the States of the amendment above quoted will take the question out of National politics, its ratification being purely a State matter. Further, a Federal statute passed under a permissive amendment could be repealed by the next Congress, and even after the question was supposed to be settled it would still be made an issue in the election of Congressmen by desperate liquor interests seeking to come back, thus side-tracking everything else and bringing into Congress the degree of corruption that exists now in State legislatures, especially in States with big cities.

The securing of a permissive amendment would be an empty victory. It would be like taking prisoners of war and allowing them to retain their guns, for the liquor traffic would still be on the job with its vast corruption funds, buying political bosses, terrorizing candidates, and controlling politics. On the other hand, the adoption of a straight-out prohibition amendment would at once give the advantage of position to the moral element. It would take the Government out of complicity with the liquor traffic. It would destroy the political power of the traffic, and thereby prevent effective organized resistance to the enforcement and supplemental legislation which will be necessary to secure practically perfect results. It would allow the policy of prohibition to be tried out on its merits.

Finally, a permissive amendment, merely allowing Congress to pass a prohibition statute, would be useless and a waste of effort, for identically the same purpose can now be served without an amendment by Congressional action in putting a tax of $1,000 a gallon on alcoholic liquor, since Congress can at any time destroy the liquor traffic by the use of its taxing power.

The main reason why the prohibition amendment is being pressed in its present form is because it is desired, so far as possible under existing conditions, which require ratification by States, to secure "*prohibition with the people behind it*," in order to settle for all time this fundamental question of National morality.

[We agree with Mr. Anderson, one of the most reasonable, practical, and effective opponents of the liquor traffic whom we know, that the Federal regulation of this traffic is a "fundamental question of National morality." The relation of the Federal Government to the business of manufacturing and selling alcoholic intoxicating liquors is no longer a speculative problem of private morality, but has become a public question of growing intensity. It is not merely a problem of prohibition, but it is a problem of how prohibition can be effectively enforced. The attitudes of the Governments of Russia, Great Britain, and France towards the sale of alcohol as a beverage under the stress of war show conclusively that it is a public and not a private question. We are in deep sympathy with those men, like Mr. Anderson, who are fighting the acknowledged evils of the liquor trade. Alcohol is being attacked by railway managers, manufacturers, employers, and leaders of labor because it promotes wasteful, terrible, and expensive individual inefficiency. It is being fought by the Governments in Russia, France, and England because it promotes social inefficiency. We have favored the permissive Constitutional amendment, instead of the prohibitive Constitutional amendment, both because of the Constitutional arguments which Mr. Anderson describes in the foregoing article and because we have believed that the Congress of the United States ought to be more thoroughly informed than it is at present on the subsidiary questions involved in National prohibition before it endeavors "to settle for all time" the relations of the Federal Government to the liquor trade.

For this reason we advocate the appointment by the President, under Act of Congress, of a small commission, like the Mexican or the Monetary Commission, to study the whole question and make a report to Congress. This was the course pursued in the radical and overturning change from the old National Bank Act to the present Federal Reserve Law, a change which has had a most far-reaching effect upon industry, finance, and society in this country.

We heartily join with Mr. Anderson in wishing that Congress might be able to abolish with a stroke of the pen the untold miseries and crimes which spring from the trade in alcoholic liquors. The problem before the country is clear. The moral forces of the country, as Mr. Anderson says, are united in demanding that the power of the Federal Government shall be brought to bear upon the suppression of the gigantic evils of that traffic. Neither the individual, the public, nor Congress can longer evade the question. It was at one time regarded in this country as a sentimental issue. That time is past. It is a very real and practical issue. But the method to be adopted for the solution of this problem is not yet so clear. When an authoritative commission has made its report, the country will be in a better position to decide whether a permissive or a prohibitive amendment or no amendment is the proper solution. If there appears to be any difference of opinion between Mr. Anderson and us, it is not a difference of opinion regarding the great moral and social principles involved, but a difference of opinion regarding the method to be adopted for the establishment of these paramount moral and social principles.—THE EDITORS.]

A PROGRESSIVE NEW YORK PARISH

HOW extraordinarily the Church has broadened in its sphere of influence since the days of our Puritan forefathers is indicated by a recent reunion of the congregation of St. George's Church which was held on the evening of December 5 in the Sixty-ninth Regiment Armory in this city. A great company of people gathered in the spacious balconies of the huge armory and in seats under the balcony, which left the middle floor open for the exercises of the evening. The programme began with a procession of the church guilds led by the military band of the Sixty-ninth Regiment. In this procession were the rector and the clergy of the church, the vestry, the choir in their vestments, and twenty clubs and organizations of men, women, boys, and girls, including a battalion of uniformed cadets, which is one of the parish organizations.

The battalion of cadets marched with their own battalion banner and with the American flag, which was saluted in military fashion, after which the audience sang the "Star-Spangled Banner" under the leadership of the military band and the church choir. The rector, Dr. Karl Reiland, then pronounced an invocation and made a short address. The entire audience sang a simple non-theological hymn. Bishop Lawrence, of Massachusetts, then addressed the company, after which the cadets, with their own fife and drum corps and admirably uniformed and equipped, went through an exhibition drill and were inspected in West Point fashion by Major-General Leonard Wood, of the Regular army, and Brigadier-General George R. Dyer, of the National Guard, in full uniform and accompanied by their respective staffs.

At the conclusion of the drill the audience sang "America," and then the floor was cleared for dancing. The order of dancing, which included waltzes, one-steps, and fox-trots, was printed on the programme along with the other features of the exercises and was under the direction of the Committee on Congregational Extension, who also arranged the reunion. Lemonade at five cents a glass, ice-cream at ten cents a plate, and cake at five cents a portion was served by the ladies of the Parish Missions Society during the dancing; and we may add that tickets admitting two to this very delightful reunion were sold at twenty-five cents apiece.

No one who saw the great company participating in this church reception and dance could fail to be impressed with the fine spirit of fraternalism which makes St. George's one of the distinguished working churches of New York. That the human spirit of St. George's is of a breadth that brings all types of men and women into its working force is strikingly illustrated by an article which appeared in the "St. George's Magnet," the monthly official paper published by the parish. We print the article here.—THE EDITORS.

WHY I GO TO ST. GEORGE'S

ANONYMOUSLY CONTRIBUTED BY A WORKER IN ST. GEORGE'S WHO DESCRIBES HIMSELF AS AN ACTIVE BUT ACQUIESCENT SKEPTIC

The following article is published with the consent of the Congregational Extension Committee, but with the distinct understanding that they do not mean thereby to imply acquiescence in the views expressed.

I am, or at least I try to be, a man. To that end, I endeavor to be courageous, truthful, and considerate of others. At St. George's and in its work I find an atmosphere which stimulates me in this effort and helps me to refurbish ideals which are tarnished by the acid gases that are constantly generated by the struggle for existence. This atmosphere, as far as I am able to analyze it, is a synthetic product. It seems to emanate from the traditions of the church as an organization for the service of mankind, the spirit of humanitarianism which animates those of the congregation with whom I come in contact, and the democratic sympathy and inclusive love of men by which the rector's sermons are inspired. I suppose, or at least I have been told, that the selflessness of Christ and his example is the one that gives to this atmosphere its invigorating power, but as to this I am not at all clear, for I should be uncandid if I omitted to say that the theories of the church with regard to the supernatural or the transcendental interest me not at all. I regard the Christian Church in its entirety, including both Catholics and Protestants, as the most beneficent organization society has yet devised for the promotion of altruism and morality. I feel that St. George's is the most virile and congenial arm of that organization with which I have come in contact. I am conscious that it helps me as I have stated and that it inspires me with a desire to help others.

I am therefore glad to do what I can in my humble way to forward the work in which St. George's is engaged, and feel it a privilege to attend its services, although I am not confirmed, do not go to communion, and would be guilty of intellectual hypocrisy if I repeated the Creed or joined in the petitions and declarations of the Prayer-Book.

I am writing this because my observation leads me to believe that many other laymen feel as I do in regard to questions of theology. Etymologically and originally, the word theology meant a knowledge of God. Its significance has been enlarged, but I think that most men have concluded that it embraces a subject essentially unknowable and they are not disposed to concern themselves about it.

As long as men believed in the plenary inspiration and inerrancy of the Bible, and derived therefrom a fear of hell or a hope of heaven, it was entirely reasonable, it was in fact their duty, to examine carefully the theories and authority upon which the teachings of such an important book were applied.

I may be mistaken, but I doubt whether one man in fifty has to-day any certitude of belief in hell or heaven, and for most of us the question of whether we shall live again is answered in the words of Robert Ingersoll, "Reason says perhaps, while hope still answers yes."

This mental attitude may be due to the unconscious influence of "higher criticism," so called, or to the philosophy of Spencer, Huxley, Darwin, and their disciples, but, whatever the cause, it undoubtedly exists. The practical result is that men no longer identify themselves with the Church, and are leaving it in large numbers, because they feel that they will be hypocritical and so regarded if they join in the work of an organization that professes to believe some theories which they cannot accept.

These same men are nevertheless anxious to do good, to help their fellow-men, and to live clean, honest, and healthful lives.

To such men I would say that the Church to-day is in much the same position theologically that England is politically. Every one knows that the Government of Great Britain is a pure democracy. All the laws of the realm are framed, nevertheless, as the mandate of the King. The army is *his* army. Punishments and rewards are meted out in *his* name, and he is permitted to describe the

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Government as *his* Government, though he is, as a matter of fact, its servant, acutely responsive to its commands. The monarchical theory is obsolescent. The fact that it is maintained as a harmless fiction out of respect for tradition and the prejudices of a few does not deter even the most radical democrat from joining in the service of his country.

He is not conscious of any intellectual hypocrisy when he sings "God Save the King," for he knows that every one else knows that the divine right of a hereditary monarchy is an exploded theory, and that he is not in any way stultifying his political faith by conformity to a verbal habit that seems to imply the acceptance of an archaic principle.

The Protestant Church seems to me to be in much the same case to-day. A literal acceptance of its creeds and theology has become impossible for most people. They need not, however, be thereby deterred from joining in its humanitarian work if they think that it is worth while.

No suspicion of hypocrisy will rest upon them for so doing. For those who are thus content to be agnostics with regard to the unknowable, but aspire nevertheless to

"join the choir invisible
Of those immortal dead who live again
In minds made better by their presence: live
In pulses stirred to generosity,
In deeds of daring rectitude, in scorn
For miserable aims that end with self,
In thoughts sublime that pierce the night like stars
And with their mild persistence urge man's search
To vaster issues,"

St. George's offers a wide range of activity and a great opportunity. Speaking from personal experience, I can say that they will be welcomed and no questions asked as to what they believe or disbelieve. They will be put to work, not in teaching obsolete theology, but in helping their fellow-men. This is written in the hope that it will attract some of the many who are, as I was, unattached to any church because for a time I felt myself excluded by what used to be called skepticism. I should be sorry, however, to affront any for whom the creeds and forms of the Church have either a traditional or a practical value.

If they help others, I would not have them changed, for I have lived long enough to realize that a reverential affection even for things which may contain some elements of error is often a very powerful influence for good.

WHY FRANCE IS FIGHTING AND WANTS TO CONTINUE THE FIGHT

BY STEPHANE LAUZANNE

Mr. Lauzanne is editor-in-chief of the "Matin," one of the daily newspapers of Paris having a large circulation and influence not only in France but throughout the Continent of Europe. Mr. Lauzanne, who has spent much time in England, is well acquainted not only with English politics and statesmen, but with the influential men and public opinion of all the belligerent European countries. He speaks with the authority of knowledge when he interprets the facts and feelings connected with the attitude of France towards the war. He is now visiting the United States for the purpose of familiarizing himself with public opinion here.—THE EDITORS.

PRINCE BISMARCK once said that a Frenchman was a man "wearing a decoration and ignorant of geography." *Wearing a decoration;* some of them do wear decorations, and I think that after this war no one will laugh at the decorations worn by the men of the Marne and of the Somme, of Rheims and of Verdun. *Ignorant of geography;* that may be true, but only in this sense, that we thought that all other countries of Europe, beyond our borders, had the same sense of honor, the same respect for signed treaties, the same regard for small and weak nations. In that we were wrong and ignorant of geography. But we do know history, and especially the history we are writing with our blood. It is that history which explains why France is fighting and why France must continue to fight.

Who wanted war? Who prepared for an aggressive war? Who declared war?

If any one desires to know what nations wanted war, he has only to read the speech of M. Giolitti, Italian Prime Minister, in which he revealed that in 1913, one year before the assassination of the Austrian Archduke, Italy was approached by her two Allies, Germany and Austria, and asked by them to join in an attack on Serbia, under promise of a share in the spoils.

If any one desires to know what nations prepared for an aggressive war, he will find indisputable proof that while from 1883 to 1893—twenty years before the war—the increase of the military expenses in France was seventy per cent, in England fifty-three per cent, in Russia ninety-seven per cent, the increase in Germany during the same period was two hundred and twenty-nine per cent; and he will find further that in 1913, when France spent one hundred and twenty million dollars for war material, Germany spent for the same purpose seven hundred million dollars.

If any one desires to know what nations declared war, let him refer to the Austro-German diplomatic correspondence, and he will see that in three days four declarations of war were issued against Serbia, Russia, France, and Belgium respectively from Berlin and Vienna. He will find the one against France delivered on August 3, 1914, at 6:45 P.M., by Baron von Schoen, German Ambassador in Paris, who called at the French Foreign Office and handed the following document:

> *Mr. President:*
>
> The German administrative and military authorities have established a certain number of flagrantly hostile acts committed on German territory by French military aviators. Several of these have openly violated the neutrality of Belgium by flying over the territory of that country; one has attempted to destroy buildings near Wesel; others have been seen in the district of the Eifel; one has thrown bombs on the railway near Carlsruhe and Nuremberg.
>
> I am instructed, and I have the honor to inform your Excellency, that in the presence of these acts of aggression the German Empire considers itself in a state of war with France in consequence of the acts of this latter Power.

Every statement of fact in this declaration of war was proved subsequently to be untrue, and on May 18 of this year a German publication, the "Deutsche Medizinische Wochenschrift," published a letter of the German Dr. Schwalbe, Burgomaster of the German town of Nuremberg, who formally declared that "the rumor that bombs had been thrown by French aviators on Nuremberg or its railway was utterly untrue." So that war was not only declared upon France, but was declared on a false pretext trumped up for the occasion.

If, moreover, any one desires to know how war was carried on as regards neutrals, let him read what on August 4, 1914, before the Reichstag, the German Chancellor himself publicly declared concerning the invasion of Belgium:

"We have been forced into a state of self-defense, and the necessity of self-defense knows no other law [*kennt kein Gebot*]. Our troops have occupied Luxemburg, and have perhaps already been obliged to enter Belgian territory. *That is against the rules of international law.* It is true that the French Government announced in Brussels that it would respect Belgian neutrality as long as its opponents would do so. But we knew that France was ready for an invasion of Belgium.

"France could afford to wait. We could not wait. An attack on our flank might have been fatal. We were therefore obliged to disregard the protest of the Luxemburg and Belgian Governments. For the wrong we have done thereby we shall try to atone, as soon as our military end is obtained."

And if any one wants to know how war was carried on as regards civilian belligerents, he will remember the burning of Louvain, the destruction of the Cathedral of Rheims, the murder of Miss Cavell and Captain Fryatt, the deportation of women and young girls from northeastern France—who last summer were reduced to virtual slavery in the fields—and the deportation of the male population of Belgium now reduced to servitude in German war factories, which recently was stigmatized in the following terms by President Wilson: "*The Government of the United States is constrained to protest most solemnly against this action, which is in contravention of all precedents and of those humane principles of international practice which have long been accepted and followed by civilized nations in their treatment of non-combatants.*"

Thus France, who did not want war, who did not prepare for any aggressive measures, and did not declare war but had war declared against her, had to face war and fight for her existence and independence. Now France means to fight on.

France will fight on because what is at stake is not territory, or money, or influence, but an ideal; and one cannot bargain over an ideal.

The ideal of France and of every ally of France is to extirpate, once for all, the spirit of oppression, of brutality, of aggression, which is responsible for this war. That spirit is expressed in the German plan of world domination (*Weltmacht*). That plan will be given up when the German people have realized that they have been beaten, that they are weaker than those they attacked, that they are not to dictate terms of peace but to have terms of peace dictated to them, that they are not to offer, as an alm, not to annihilate other nations, but must learn to respect the independence of every nation, big or small, as a supreme and imperative law. It will be given up then and only then.

This the Germans have not realized yet, but they will realize it soon. We have every reason to believe that they will realize it next year, because we have every reason to believe that we will be able to beat them next year. At the beginning of next summer we will have all that we require as regards ammunition and big artillery. We could not have had it sooner, because it takes time and preparation to manufacture big guns in large quantities. Next year, early in the summer, England will have all that she requires as regards the number of men to put in the field; she could not have had them sooner because compulsory service took effect in England only last summer. At the same time, Russia, who, according to Herr von Jagow, German Minister of Foreign Affairs, has "an inexhaustible reserve of men," will have all that she requires in armament for the equipment of her vast multitude of fighters. She could not have had it sooner because it takes time to recover from blows such as Russia suffered last year owing to her unpreparedness. When one thinks that Russia this year reconquered nearly three provinces—Volhynia, Bukowina, part of Galicia—one may have full confidence that next year, being better prepared, she will reconquer much more and strike much harder.

Next year, we have reason to believe, we will win the war and, in our turn, give the terms of our peace. All the terms of that peace, including the recovery of territory, belong to the ideal for which we are fighting.

When Italy demands Trieste and the Trentino, when Rumania demands Transylvania, they do not demand them for the mere ambition of aggrandizing their territories, but because the populations of these provinces belong to their race, speak their language, have their faith, and do not want to live under an abhorred alien domination.

When France demands Alsace-Lorraine, she does not do so because she will have five departments more in her geographical configuration, but because these territories were taken from France by force forty-five years ago, because the population of these territories not only were not consulted at the time as to whether they wanted their new rulers, but protested solemnly in 1871, and kept up that protest against Prussian domination for forty-five years. France, then, demands the restoration of Alsace-Lorraine only because it will fulfill the dictates of right and justice.

A French statesman, M. Louis Barthou, ex-Premier, has summarized the French *état d'âme* in a striking formula, which must be always remembered: "All France for all the war."

Yes, all France, with her children, with her men, young and old, with her women, with her dead, for all the war. And I may add, all France in all the trenches. In the trenches of Verdun, where we had sworn to ourselves that, even if we had to give the last drop of our blood, Germans would not pass—and the Germans have not passed; in the trenches of Rheims, where in the shadow of the glorious mutilated Cathedral we have sworn to punish barbarism—and we will punish it; in the trenches of the Somme, where with our brothers-in-arms of Scotland, of England, of Ireland, of Canada, of Australia, of New Zealand, we have grasped the aggressors by the throat—and we will not loosen the grasp.

For all the war, whatever may be the length of that war, whatever may be the sufferings of the nation, whatever may be the hardships imposed by destiny, in order that we may punish those who in declaring this war have committed a crime against humanity, and who in carrying on this war as they have done, with every needless cruelty the mind can conceive, have committed all the crimes against civilization which it was in their power to commit.

All France for all the war! But the whole of France also for the whole victory—for the victory which will not alone be the victory of France but also the victory of right, of justice, of humanity.

GROW OLD ALONG WITH ME

BY CHARLES HENRY LERRIGO, M.D.

ARE you interested in adding fifteen years to your life?

Perhaps you are one of those sound, strong persons absolutely assured of perfect health.

Very well. Two thousand young persons, mostly men, average age thirty, employees of commercial houses and banks in New York City, were given a medical examination in a recent period of six months; 1,898 of them were positive of getting a perfect bill of health.

Here are the findings:

Sixty-three were absolutely sound!

The remaining 1,937 all suffered from some defect, great or small, which was capable of improvement. The medical examinations were made through the agency of the Life Extension Institute. It is approved by the Association of Life Insurance Presidents. You may conclude that their interest in prolonging life is not wholly altruistic, but you must admit that it is pretty sure to be very practical. Perhaps you will agree, too, that any movement for prolonging your comfortable and serviceable stay on earth is bound to possess at least a tinge of altruism.

The two thousand examinations were designedly made from a preferred class for the particular purpose of ascertaining how many were in prime condition, how many living in the healthiest possible way, how many on the right road for a life that is long and lovely. And 1,937 of them needed help!

It is very true that most of the defects were considered by the subjects as trifles because not yet developed. It is also true, however, that 107 had organic heart trouble, 255 had a combination of both heart and kidney disease, 444 had decayed teeth or infected gums, 320 had faulty vision uncorrected, while 757 were on the road to impairment because of "too much alcohol," "too much tobacco," constipation, eye-strain, overweight, diseased mouths, errors of diet, and so forth.

An estimate as to the gravity of the physical errors found may be formed from the fact that fifty-nine per cent of the total cases examined were recommended for medical treatment. And this from a couple of thousand young men and women in active work at the best age of life!

On reading these figures, which I have been careful not to overstate, your first thought may be that they are impossible. If we are such a dying race, we would know it ourselves; our friends would be dropping off like autumn leaves. Nonsense! The world has gone along and is getting better rather than worse. Let us pay no heed to these alarmists. We shall get along as well as we always have.

Unfortunately, however, these figures are based on that stubborn commodity known as fact; the same fact that is even stranger than fiction. The nonsense lies in our being content with old conditions. This is an age of progress. Are we satisfied to live just as long as our forebears and top off our lives with the seventh or eighth decade one of trembling senility?

The trend of these investigations, the object of this work of the Life Extension Institute, the purpose of the many National organizations, such as the Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, the Association for the Prevention of Infant Mortality, and many others, is to get better things for us than our forefathers enjoyed. If it is possible to add ten, fifteen, or twenty years to the span of human life, as is declared by such an observer as Professor Fisher, do we not want to have it?

What is the proper span of human life?

This question of never-failing interest has been asked in all generations, and each succeeding one gives a different answer. Half a century ago the credited age was much in excess of that believed possible at the present day. They did not really live longer in the old days, but they thought they did!

In Westminster Abbey, the celebrated burial-place of kings and queens, warriors, statesmen, and poets, there stands a monument testifying to the repose of the remains of one Thomas Parr, a humble laborer, given rest in this sacred spot of dignity because this "old, old, very old man" had "lived in the reigns of ten kings," dying at the age of one hundred and fifty-two.

Another old, old man, Henry Jenkins, likewise an English laborer, has a monument to his memory in Yorkshire testifying that "he lived to the amazing age of one hundred and sixty-nine."

England was not the only country to boast of ancient men, nor did she boast the loudest.

It was claimed that a Hungarian named Pierre Zortay lived to one hundred and ninety. Norway set forth the venerable Drakenburg as reaching one hundred and forty-six—more modest, yet a goodly age. Ages of natives of tropical countries were quite amazing, often showing a disposition to serious competition with Methuselah's record, the age curve being in inverse ratio with the reliability of the country's registration records.

These reports were very gratifying, not only feeding the desire for the marvelous inherent in every human breast, but also giving great comfort to that universal craving of the human heart to enjoy life, and enjoy it as long as possible.

But there arose a skeptic in the person of one William J. Thoms, F.S.A., a librarian of England's House of Lords, who went to the trouble of investigating some of the many claims of extreme longevity which arose from all quarters, and found an iconclastic pleasure in proving that two and two never do make more than four. He attacked the famous Parr and Jenkins records with such effect that no one now dares quote their lives as instancing a long career, and Shropshire and Yorkshire no longer get vacation boarders on the records of their native sons.

Mr. Thoms filled a big book with the exploded reports of his centenarians, showing how this old person claiming to be one hundred and thirty was basing the claim on the baptismal certificate of his father, of the same name, and that old lady claiming one hundred and twenty years had really lived but eighty-six, until it began to be a serious question whether any one ever really lived to be a hundred.

In the end he admitted to record four persons who had slightly exceeded the century, one going nearly to one hundred and four. Since then Dr. George Murray Humphry has presented an account of seventy-one persons reliably known to have lived more than a hundred years; and an insurance company has published a list of twenty-two insured lives of centenarians, the highest record being one hundred and five years eight months.

There is a certain fascination about living a century (a fascination that easily leads to falsification). The glory of the achievement sheds luster on the remotest connections, so that there is always some one to boast of the feat, and it is one of the few ways in which any old person who can last out may bring fame to posterity.

"It ain't s' much 'at she died, Doc," sobbed one old man at his mother's bedside. "She was old an' didn't know nothin' no more, an' she had to go sometime. But jes' to think, five weeks more would ha' made her a hundred! Clos't as that, an' then to have all them years o' care go for nothin'!"

Absurd, of course! As a matter of fact, there is no special reason for setting up the century post as a goal. As Professor Irving Fisher has pointed out in his famous "Report on National Vitality," the most important dimension of life is not length but breadth. There is little gain in the burdensome dragging of a life that is already spent. But why may not old age mean rather an effective employment of the ripe experience gathered in the early years?

When the plague swept Europe in 1576, it carried off the great Titian, the painter who mixed his pigments with sunshine, ending the work that he was doing "with incomparable steadiness of hand" on his great painting "Pieta." And he was ninety-nine!

Luigi Cornaro, the Venetian centenarian, lost his income in extreme old age "on account of misfortunes of his grandchildren." He took up scientific farming, showing Venice how to prepare for cultivation large tracts of land hitherto useless and waste. This at ninety-five.

Coming to modern instances, Chevreul, the French chemist, who died in 1889, at the age of one hundred and three, was in full and active charge of the Museum of Natural History until he was ninety-four, and, retiring then, yet retained his Professorship of Applied Chemistry.

Out in Canton, Kansas, to-day, Dr. Charles Hedinger, at the age of ninety-five, performs all of the arduous duties of a country practice, turning out at midnight to drive a score of miles, though the temperature be below zero.

These are the broad lives that help us to read the meaning of Browning in "Rabbi Ben Ezra:"

"Grow old along with me!
The best is yet to be,
The last of life, for which the first was made."

There is a real reason for growing old here: "The best is yet to be." It sounds sensible and as it should be; the early years for getting ready, the later ones for fruitage.

Dr. Hurty, of Indiana, recently declared that if the economic value of a baby is $400, that of a man of forty is at least ten times as much. Without any slackening in our work for the babies, we must pay very careful attention to the $4,000 article.

Dr. Louis I. Dublin and Professor Irving Fisher, in recent publications, have shown that the middle-aged citizen is not getting a fair deal.

The great advances in public health work have done much to reduce the acute or infectious diseases, such as typhoid, diphtheria, smallpox, even tuberculosis; but the middle-aged man is dying more rapidly than ever of the degenerative diseases.

Cancer, diabetes, apoplexy, organic heart disease, diseases of the arteries, cirrhosis of the liver, and Bright's disease—these seven causes account for more than one-half of the deaths after the age of forty.

Both investigators charge the advanced mortality to the stress of modern life.

Dr. Dublin instances the making of shoes "made entirely by machine processes directed by specialist workmen, who perform, at high speed and over long hours, one or at most a few operations." This work has "left its mark upon the individual workman. He no longer enjoys the pleasure incident to the performance of a whole task. The unceasing whirl of high-speed machinery, the persistent noises of the shop, and the necessary nervous accommodation to the rapid movements of the machines result, after long periods of time, in distinct psychoses."

Alcohol and venereal diseases are potent factors in this middle-age mortality, but these are nothing new.

Professor Fisher remarks:

> The great broad fact seems to be that, while we are freer of germs than our ancestors, our vital organs wear out sooner. There may be some difference of opinion as to the cause of this more rapid wearing out. But, personally, I believe it can be convincingly shown that the chief cause is the neglect of individual hygiene, partly from ignorance, partly from indifference, partly from sheer helplessness under modern industrial conditions.

Individual hygiene! After all, the problem comes back to the individual. The growing old, if it is to be well done, must begin at the cradle. Protection against these "degenerative diseases" means a life well lived and ancestors well chosen. We have gained in the last half century. We have pushed the average age forward. There is doubt yet as to the very best age that man may expect to live, but we know positively that it is possible for the body of a man to last him a hundred years, and, as the last years are the best, it is worth while to win them.

How shall this be done?

We must take to heart this truth: We shall live our normal length of years only when we cease to encourage the slight ailments which, after years of an unchecked course, become the serious "degenerative diseases" so destructive during middle life. We must break loose from the lethargy that allows us to feel that our present state of health is all right, that it is the common lot, and is therefore the best we can expect.

To hedge ourselves around with a strict rule for every detail of life is irksome and undesirable, yet we should have a reasonable acquaintance with natural laws and pay them respectful attention. The laws of health have, every one, a penalty attached, and ignorance is never accepted as an excuse.

Fortunately, the human body has wonderful resources of repair, and it is rare indeed that health is so broken as to yield no promise of improvement to a determined effort. Luigi Cornaro was a broken man at forty, yet he lived on to be nearly a hundred, after resolving to shape the broken ends aright. Humboldt was a weakling who conquered. Horace Fletcher is a good modern example. We need not go out of our own experience to find strong men who have built up their own constitutions from a frail boyhood.

Prevent illness. Build up the natural defensive resources of the body. Use the automatic scavenger system with which you are supplied, but do not make the mistake of thinking that you can neglect it at pleasure and then escape by whipping it up with irritating drugs. Drink freely of clear water. Eat to satisfaction rather than repletion, and let the diet be of good balance. Never let the drudgery of daily routine obscure the end for which you live. A rush of work is not legitimate excuse for progressive suicide.

"Have thou moderation in all things; keep thyself from wild joy and from wailing sorrow; strive to hold thy soul in harmony and concord, like the strings of a well-tuned harp." (Pythagoras.)

To possess a sane outlook on life is a prime requisite for living long. Serenity, courage, poise, determination, all are important factors. It may be that there is a physiologic center which controls the aging of the body, as is claimed, but, even so, we may be sure that it reacts to these psychic influences.

When ill employ a physician, not a "medicine man." Do not expect him to work a miracle of healing. Ask only that he give you such relief as medical science has now at hand, and conduct your body wisely back to normal functions. Above all things, do not urge him to allow a premature resumption of your work. The greatest obstacle to a full recovery from illness, a recovery that makes tissues and organs just as good as before, is placing the load on them again while yet they are weak.

Now, to revert to this important fact that ninety-seven per cent of two thousand apparently healthy young people, on examination, presented some defect. It is not in human nature to be constantly careful. There must be a check on conditions, something that will nip in the bud the apparently small matters. It is "the little foxes that spoil the vines;" the pyorrhœa that does its damage painlessly, yet persistently, and in the course of its run is more harmful than a typhoid attack; the increased blood pressure that works for years before you realize its presence; the "nervous cough" that is so constant a companion that you scarcely notice it; the chronic catarrh that "everybody has."

Discovering these "little things" and giving them early attention is the best way to check the degenerative diseases that are robbing us of our prime years. The wise automobile owner puts his car in the shop every six months for thorough overhauling by an expert, because he realizes that a defect in some small part may ruin the whole machine. We must likewise submit our valuable machines for periodic examinations.

No necessity in your case? Eighteen hundred and ninety-eight of the two thousand had that idea, but only sixty-three of them were sustained. Remember that when death comes it is usually just one part of the mechanism that is worn out, while the rest could have gone for many years.

Volumes could be written showing how trifles, easily checked if given early attention, wreak destruction in the end. Pyorrhœa is a good example. It is an insidious disease because painless. If attended early, it is readily cured; left unchecked, it may cause arthritic joints (commonly described as rheumatism), valvular heart disease, chronic gastritis, ulcer of the stomach, and other dangerous conditions. Diabetes is never curable unless detected in an early stage; the same is true of Bright's disease. Arteriosclerosis, if attended early, may be kept well in check and not materially shorten life. Thrombotic veins, which so often cause the tragedy of instant death from a clot getting loose in the blood stream, may be avoided by early treatment.

But, you demur, we go to the doctors, and they don't tell us how to avoid these diseases!

That has been the case in the past, but is not wholly true of the present, and is becoming less and less. The medical profession is awakening—more and more learning to make examinations that look as much to the prevention of future as the cure of present ills.

It is not likely that the general practitioner will be the one to make these periodic medical examinations when they become an established feature of our social system. A special branch of the profession will develop, a branch that will confine itself to examining and advising. There are many reasons why the family physician cannot make such a critical examination without bias. His interest in the patient is too personal. He is disinclined to accept the possibility of a serious ailment which he has heretofore overlooked. He dislikes to gives drastic advice, fearing to antagonize or distress his patient.

There is a way, however, quite independent of your family physician. This same Life Extension Institute, its interest aroused, we will say, by the fact that if you live longer you pay more insurance premiums, has arranged a chain of examining physicians enabling you to get a scientific and accurate examination entirely without personal bias.

But the profession of physical examiner is one bound to develop. It is bound to come, because it is a necessity vital to the preservation of our best years. It will be in the nature of public service, and sooner or later will be supported by public funds. The necessity for this is twofold: First, it will avail us nothing as a Nation if confined to the privileged few, able to pay big fees. Second, it must be a service of precision, absolutely detached from all considerations of gain or personal interest.

A practical method is to make the work a departmental feature of the various State Boards of Health. The importance of saving life is just as great in one way as another. It is just as important to head off Bright's disease as to prevent yellow fever. It is distinctly a work of public health, in strict keeping with the twentieth-century slogan, "Safety first." It is the logical way of preserving for use that "last of life for which the first was made."

THE CRIMINAL LAWYER AS A CAUSE OF CRIME

BY AN EX-CONVICT

DURING a stay of nearly six months in the county jail, in which I was kept awaiting trial and sentence, I do not remember one man who went to trial with any other idea than that the verdict was a gambler's chance. The guilty went down, if they had a fairly capable attorney, feeling that they had a chance to "make a get-away." The innocent frequently feared that they would be convicted. Among the men it was generally conceded that the two judges of the Criminal Court were honest and humane men. The curious thing is that no one appeared to believe that they had much to do with the matter. A majority seemed to believe that freedom or imprisonment was largely a matter of money. If they could raise enough of this to secure certain lawyers, the result was almost foreordained. And certainly there appeared solid ground for this belief in that these men did secure verdicts of "not guilty" for several scores of prisoners who had made little secret of their guilt while among us.

A pickpocket friend of mine who was court-wise through long experience told me that he had been acquitted more than thirty times of charges of which he was guilty.

"A man's a blamed idiot to plead guilty if he has money enough to fight," he said. "Suppose you get convicted, the judge isn't going to soak you any harder."

Observation confirms this statement. Usually the judge does not "soak" you any harder if you "make a fight" than if you plead guilty without formality of trial.

Study of the situation reveals that not more than ten per cent of criminals have the means to engage really capable attorneys. And usually these are of the types most dangerous to society. Perhaps thirty per cent more are enabled to engage "shysters" or beginners, whose fees range from five dollars up to whatever they can get. I saw one member of the bar accept five hundred tobacco coupons and three dollars from a foreigner in return for his promise to use his "influence" with the judge to have the man put on probation.

During my stay in the jail and during my confinement in the penitentiary I was fortunate in the possession of the confidence and friendship of a large number of my fellow-prisoners. Opportunity for this has come through my employment as librarian and as prison school-teacher. Of 980 individuals whom I have seen committed 937 admitted to me that they were guilty of the charges against them. Of course many offered extenuating circumstances. Of the entire number 267 were enabled to engage counsel of some sort. In the case of all but forty-five this was of very mediocre quality, and the fees paid were such that it could not be expected that the legal service rendered could be of a very arduous or extended nature. Eight hundred and thirty-eight of the men pleaded guilty without trial. Of this number 142 were of those who had engaged counsel. Of the total of 980 prisoners 125 stood trial. Of these 37 were acquitted.

The 142 men who, after engaging counsel, pleaded guilty paid for legal services $4,038.80, or an average of $28.40 each. Included in this number were men who went to prison, but who might have attained liberty under suspended sentence or probation had there been adequate presentation of their cases to the judges. But the greater proportion of this money was not paid to the lawyers with the understanding that there would be any trial, but that they would use their influence with the judges to obtain a light sentence or release on probation or suspended sentence. In the case of all but two of the lawyers there was no possibility that they could use their influence, for the reason that they had none. There was no hope for the men unless the judges could be brought to see that there were extenuating circumstances or that it would benefit the prisoner to be given a chance to "make good." The approach to the judge was understood by the latter to mean that the attorney was simply trying to earn a small fee and that he had made no investigation of his client's antecedents or circumstances. In any event this was unnecessary, for the reason that in all cases in which the prisoner pleaded guilty investigation was made by officials of the probation office.

In effect, therefore, the attorneys simply took this money and rendered absolutely no service in return other than a few moments' conversation. Sixty-seven of the men neither saw nor heard from the attorneys again after they received their fees. They were not present in court either when the prisoners made their plea or when they were sentenced. Can this be regarded as other than a form of theft?

A large portion of the money was paid by very poor prisoners, and in many instances involved sacrifice on the part of friends or relatives. In the greater number of instances it was paid very soon after arrest and when the prisoner's barriers were down and he was susceptible to any sort of influence. The attorneys were "tipped off" to the prisoners by jail officials, who received a small commission therefor.

The 125 prisoners who went to trial paid to their attorneys $20,625. The greater portion of this money was paid by men whom it was to the interest of society to see convicted. Of this number we have seen that thirty-seven were acquitted. A number of these men were undoubtedly guilty, and others who were convicted were enabled, through their counsel, to escape with much lighter sentences than men guilty of lesser misdemeanors who had pleaded guilty.

On the whole, I must conclude, from the consideration I have given to all the cases, that the greater portion of this money paid to the attorneys procured simply subversion of law and justice or entailed exploitation of men unable to make effort toward reprisal.

In the small individual family unit the small offender against the family code or even against the social code is commonly protected against undue severity, even though he may be forced to make reparation. The wise parent punishes the offending child solely with the purpose of correction of fault and provision of punitive experience as a possible deterrent against future offense. But the child, where the punishment is wisely administered, recognizes its justice and value, and the relations of child and parent are not impaired thereby. Indeed, it is possible that they may be strengthened.

Prison experience has shown that the majority of non-habitual criminal prisoners could be brought easily to the same desirable attitude of mind if they could be taught to believe that justice is administered fairly and corrective measures in force are wisely and judiciously applied. It must be remembered that a very small proportion of the offenders brought each year before the criminal courts are either criminal at heart or by intent. The majority of them are merely weak.

Face to face with realities, as men must come when deprived of their liberty, and especially when they have been able to come back to their normal mental and physical condition by enforced abstention from indulgences which may have been contributory to their downfall, they are amenable to reason. If it were distinctly understood that it would be impossible for them to evade the consequences of their action, and if they could have assurance not only of treatment looking to reparation on their own part, but also of assistance toward a condition which would insure possibility of reformation, we should be near to the solution of many of our criminal problems.

But as the system of court procedure stands at present this condition is impossible of attainment. There is on every hand the temptation to evade consequences; to postpone the inevitable reparation, through the use of money or influence, and to use every endeavor to secure these if they are lacking. And where the individual is without these and is observant of what effect they have in the amelioration of the condition of others perhaps infinitely more culpable than himself, there is induced a condition of mind which is not conducive to either repentance or desire for reformation.

There is coming a day, possibly long deferred, however, in which the individual will be considered the State's chief concern. When this day arrives, the welfare of even the delinquent will not be left to chance or the caprice of some individual impelled to interference for financial or sordid reasons. And it should be the duty of the State to ascertain exactly the degree of guilt or innocence of the offender. We know that the State now chiefly concerns itself with the guilt—that it, in fact, presupposes this—of the individual. It is for the good of the State and the individual alike that the offender's moral status be ascertained and that he make reparation, and thus, in the only way possible to him, assist in his own transformation again into the condition of an asset to society. Therefore the State should not allow private individuals, for gain, to approach a prisoner and induce him to seek to evade the consequences of his wrong-doing—the reaping of his own sowing.

In the case of a large proportion of men brought before the bar of justice there are extenuating circumstances, or there are conditions which constitute reason for not imposing the extreme penalty. If the offender could feel that these would be seriously and intelligently considered, he would far rather ease his conscience by confession and start clear in the world again. Experience has shown that many men have gone to prison with hearts made light by this consciousness that they had "wiped the slate" and would, after their punishment was over, have the opportunity to make a fair start in the world.

It should be clearly understood that a vastly greater number of criminals are at liberty than are in the prisons of the country. It is not the fault of these criminals that they are at liberty. They continue to commit crime with impunity and with little care to conceal their actions. Much of the responsibility for their continued exemption from penalty lies at the doors of the judicial system and the feet of the criminal lawyers.

No honest man, even though he be a lawyer, will listen to the story of an offender, who may have committed but one crime, and then, realizing his client's guilt, go forth and by the exercise of his wit and trickery and lying secure his release without expiation of his offense.

It should be the province of the lawyer to do that which tends toward the ultimate good of the offender. And, in the event of guilt, he should see to it that there would be no injustice of prosecution, and that any condition which might extenuate the offense should be laid before the judge. And the lawyer should be of such character that the judge would be willing to give due regard to whatever recommendation as to correction his intimate observation of his client had led him to believe would be best.

But the greater number of criminal lawyers have in the past been among the most active promoters of crime that we have observed. They have taught the professional criminal that he can "get away with anything short of murder" if he has the money. And they have assisted in the corruption of the judicial system, of juries, and of all those agencies which are supposed to repress or hold the criminal in check.

Fortunately there are now engaged in educating the members of their own profession a number of able and far-seeing lawyers who believe that defense, like prosecution, should be a public matter. One of these, John H. Wigmore, Dean of the Northwestern Law School, says:

"Why should not a body of public-salaried practitioners take care of all poor persons' litigation? The State has a duty to administer justice; and legal advisers, consulted prior to trial and acting at the trial, are an essential part of justice's machinery. Why blink the facts? And the facts are that private charity and private shysters between them are taking care of most of these people, and that an unknown mass of needs is not attended to at all.

"Why should not the State step in and do this work, or a part of it? The State maintains public hospitals; but these do not drive out private endowed hospitals nor destroy the private medical practitioners. Justice was a State function before health was."

Another eminent lawyer, R. H. Gray, of San Francisco, says: "No scientific quest calls for more dispassionate and unselfish means than the quest for truth with respect to wrongs between fellow-men. Nevertheless, hugging self-deception to our hearts, we have persistently made the courts a prize-ring where litigants do, and most often must—with such hired retainers as they can command, and without any real aid—and none or few are fairly matched—butcher their way through, with deceit and evasion, and every conceivable kind of injustice, to a 'judgment' that is often a greater catastrophe, in criminal law at least, than the original wrong, while at least a very heavy portion of the cost is borne, in both civil and criminal cases, by those who have no direct relation to the controversy or the litigants."

To me, in the light of my prison experience, the suggestions of Mr. Wigmore and Mr. Gray do not appear as fantastic as they would seem to appear to a great number of those lawyers who have ridiculed them. They would do away with the tempter of the criminal in the form of the shyster lawyer; they would bring into connection with him a type of men who would recognize that their duty to the State, as to the offender, would be to bring him to a recognition that, not the *easiest*, but the *right*, thing was that which should be done. It would not appear altruistic to consider that this condition may one day come about. When it does, the criminal may be brought to have respect for the law rather than the contempt or hatred which he most commonly possesses. It would constitute protection for society from the rich offender and protection for the poor one. Experience has shown us that fear of punishment is not a deterrent of crime, but that certainty of prompt enforcement of law is.

THE ROMANY SIGN

BY AMELIA JOSEPHINE BURR

Over the hills with the Romany train,
In the sweet wet woods and the whispering rain,
Looking back through veils of gray
To the roofs of the town where we paused to-day.
There, in the crowd of the market-place,
Is a Romany heart with a Gorgio face.
Where did you find the heart of my clan,
Under the shadow of roof and spire?
Did your mother dream of a Romany man
In the house of your Gorgio sire?
Even so shall you dream of me
When you light the hearth for a fair white bride—
Of a road untrodden, a door untried,
And an hour that is never to be.
I have set my patteran
Deep in your Romany heart.
I broke the branch from my tree of life
Where the fairest buds had begun to start—
And they never shall bloom, but they never shall fall.
Wide are the ways of your feet and mine;
It's the market-place for the Gorgio face
And the roof and the spire and the fair white wife.
I'm over the hills with the Romany chal,
And there's never a fire shall warm us twain
The width of a world apart.
But what is a world to the Romany heart
That follows the Romany sign?

MY WISH

BY ELIZABETH HANLY

This is a poem to be read only by those who love Stevenson's "The Lamplighter," or children, or both. We frankly advise every one else to skip it.—THE EDITORS.

If I could be who I would be,
If suddenly to me God said,
"Of all my dear and noble dead
Choose one to be again on earth
For strife or service, toil or mirth,
Resume, one hour, mortality,—"
I know right well who I would be.

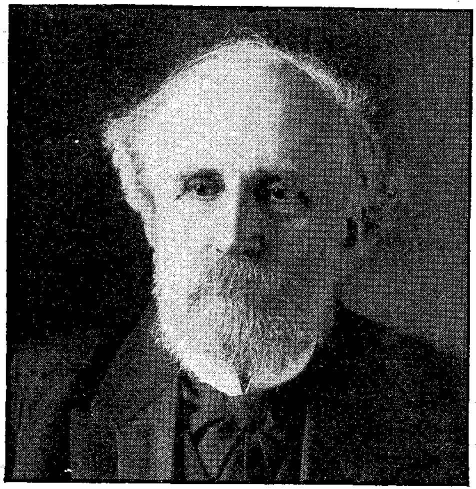
If I could go where I would go,
In all the lovely lands that are
From Southern Cross to Polar Star,
If I could linger for a space
In one long-loved, earth-hallowed place,
Why, then God's will should set me down
At nightfall in a Scottish town.

In "Leerie's" shape I would go forth
Through that dim city of the North,
And run again with eager feet
Along the Edinboro' street,
To light the gas lamps, one by one,
And nod to little Stevenson!
And as he lay in bed, he'd see
My street-stars shining in a row.

If I could be who I would be,
If I could go where I would go.

Current Events Pictorially Treated

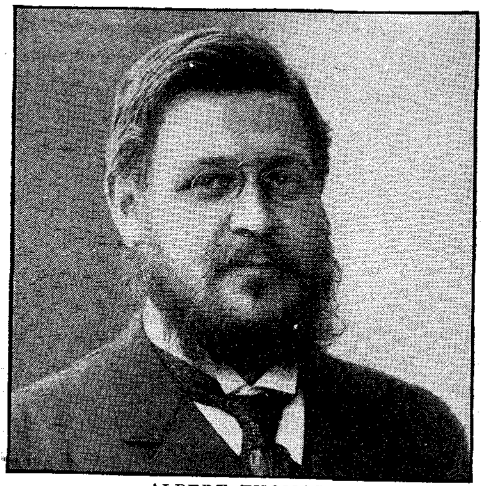
ARISTIDE BRIAND
Premier and Minister of Foreign Affairs



ALEXANDRE RIBOT
Minister of Finance

GENERAL HUBERT LYAUTEY
Minister of War

ADMIRAL LACAZE
Minister of Marine

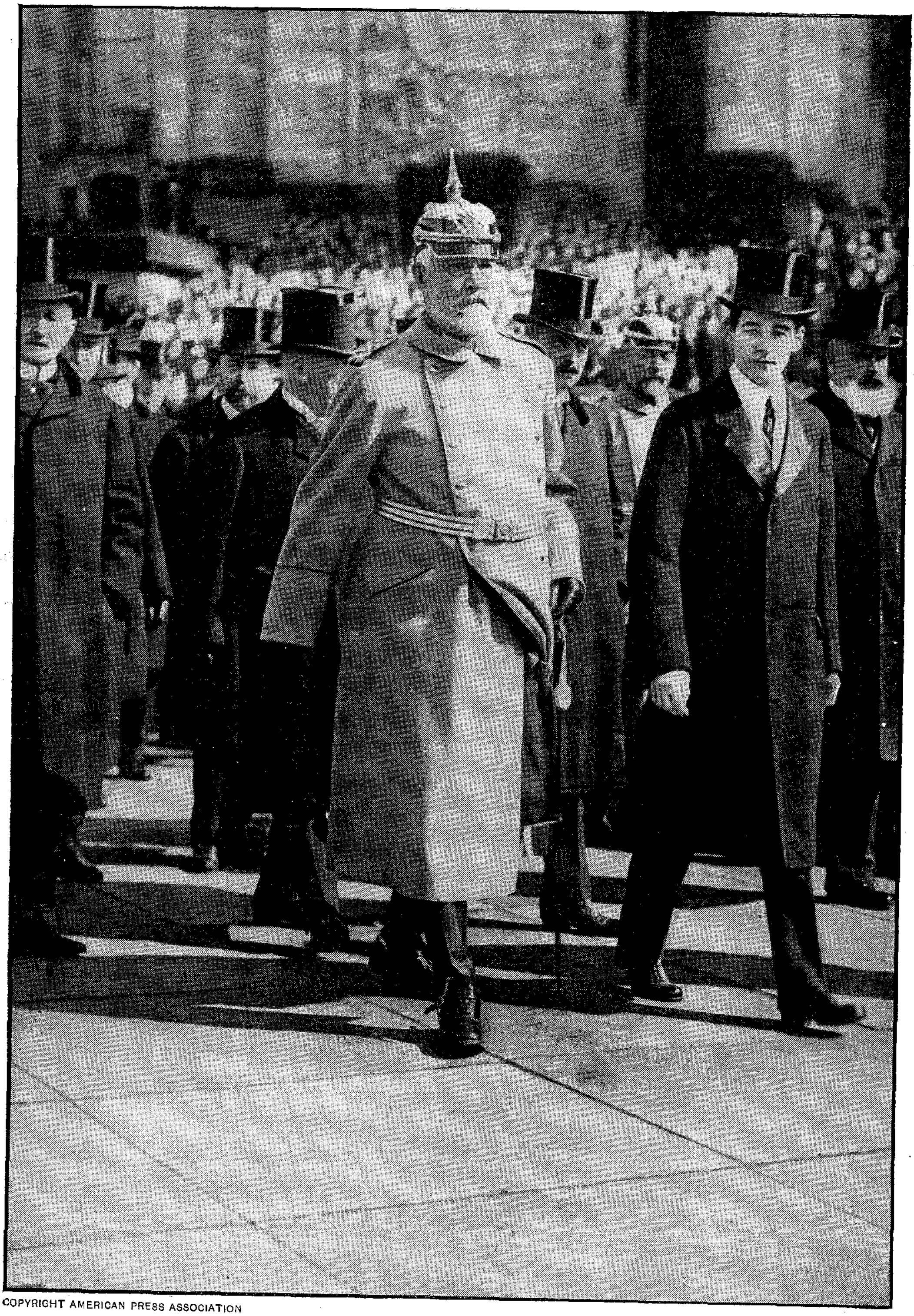


ALBERT THOMAS
Minister of Munitions and Transportation

GENERAL JOFFRE
Military Adviser to the Cabinet

THE NEW FRENCH WAR COUNCIL

GENERAL NIVELLE, THE NEW HEAD OF THE FRENCH ARMIES OF THE NORTH AND NORTHEAST



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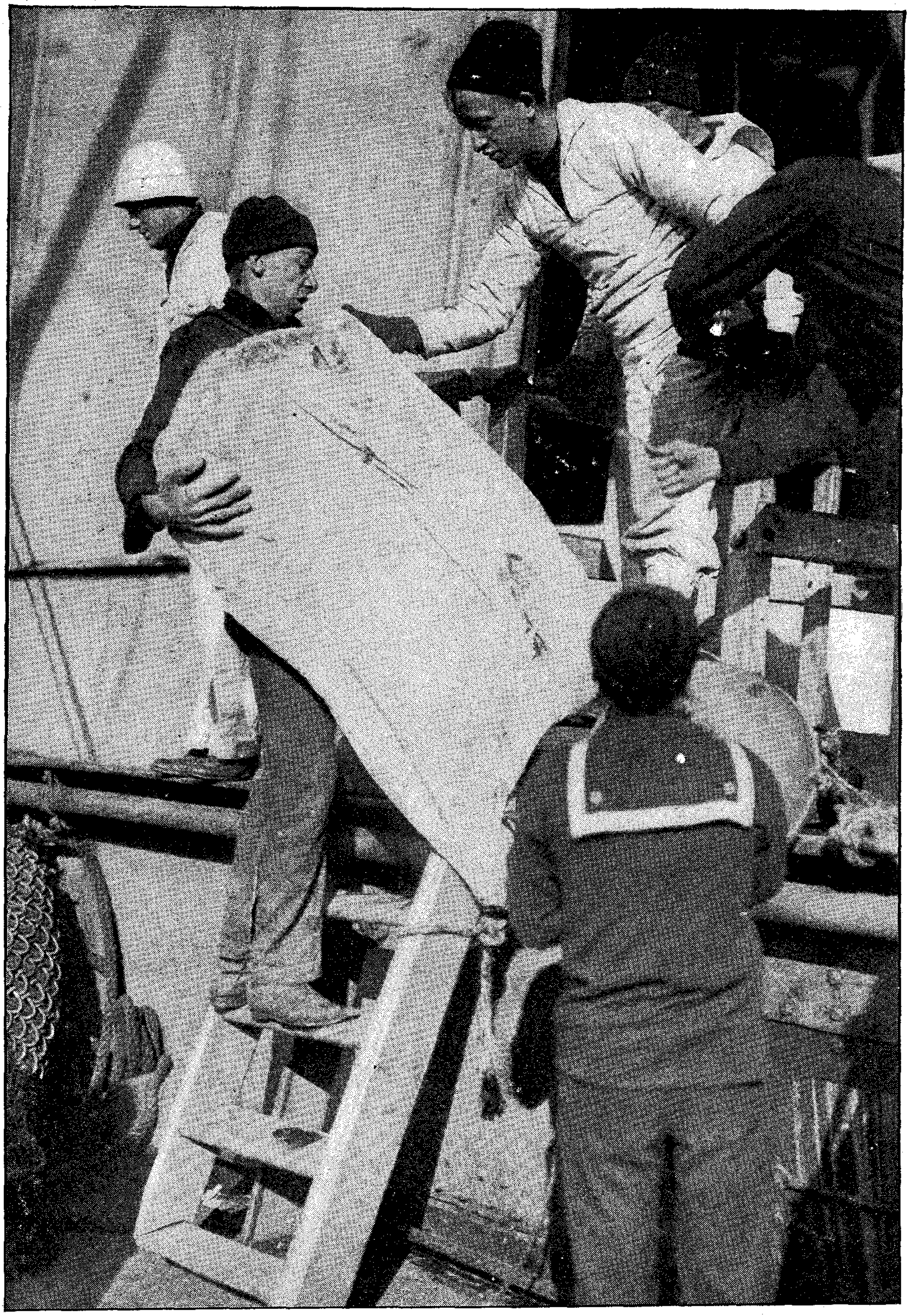
HERR VON BETHMANN HOLLWEG, THE GERMAN CHANCELLOR, LEAVING THE REICHSTAG

The peace proposals announced December 12 by Chancellor von Bethmann Hollweg have been received with the greatest interest both among the warring nations and in America, and have made the Chancellor, as Germany's mouthpiece on this great occasion, more than ever a figure of historic importance



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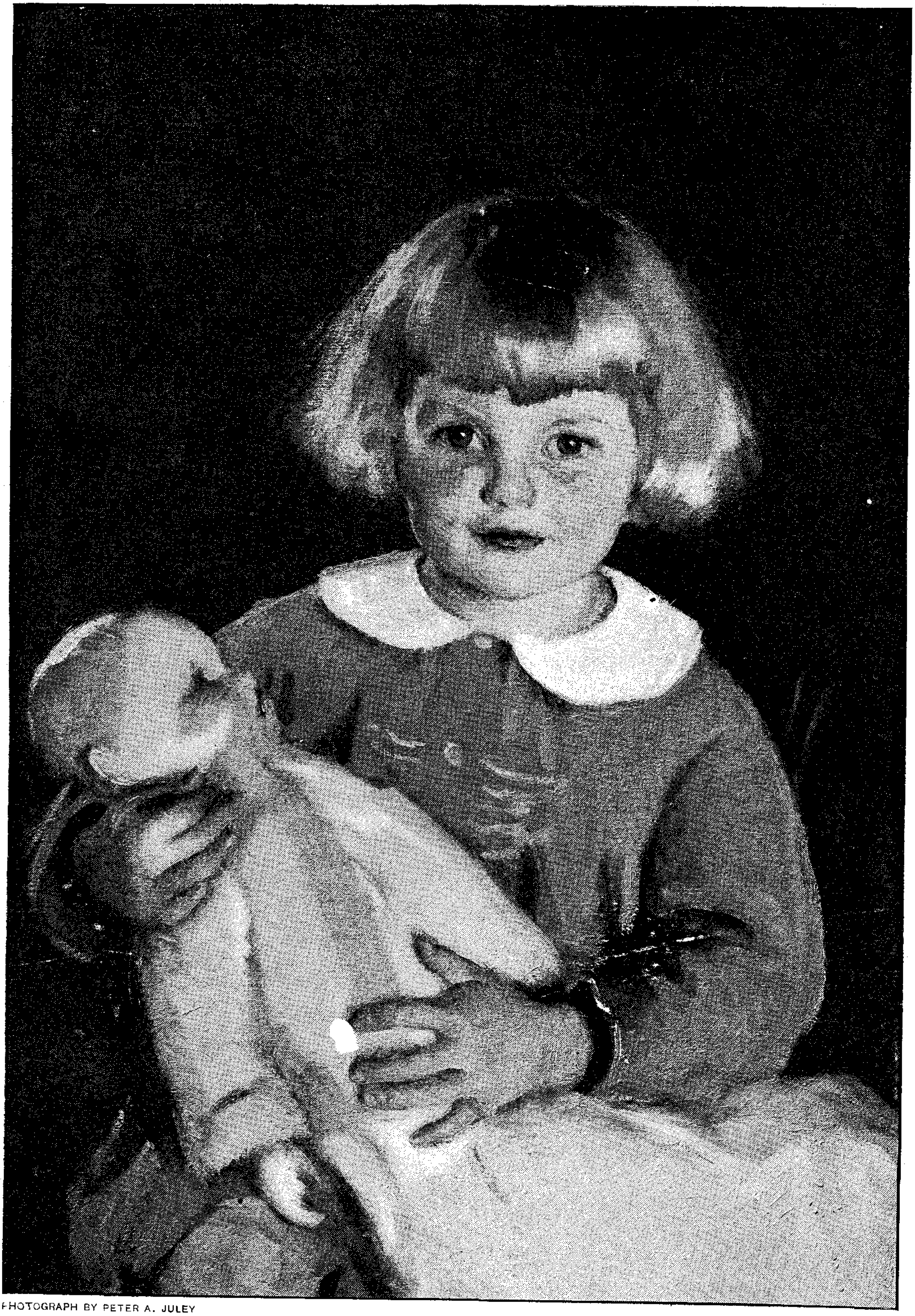
A CHRISTMAS SHIP FOR STARVING ARMENIANS

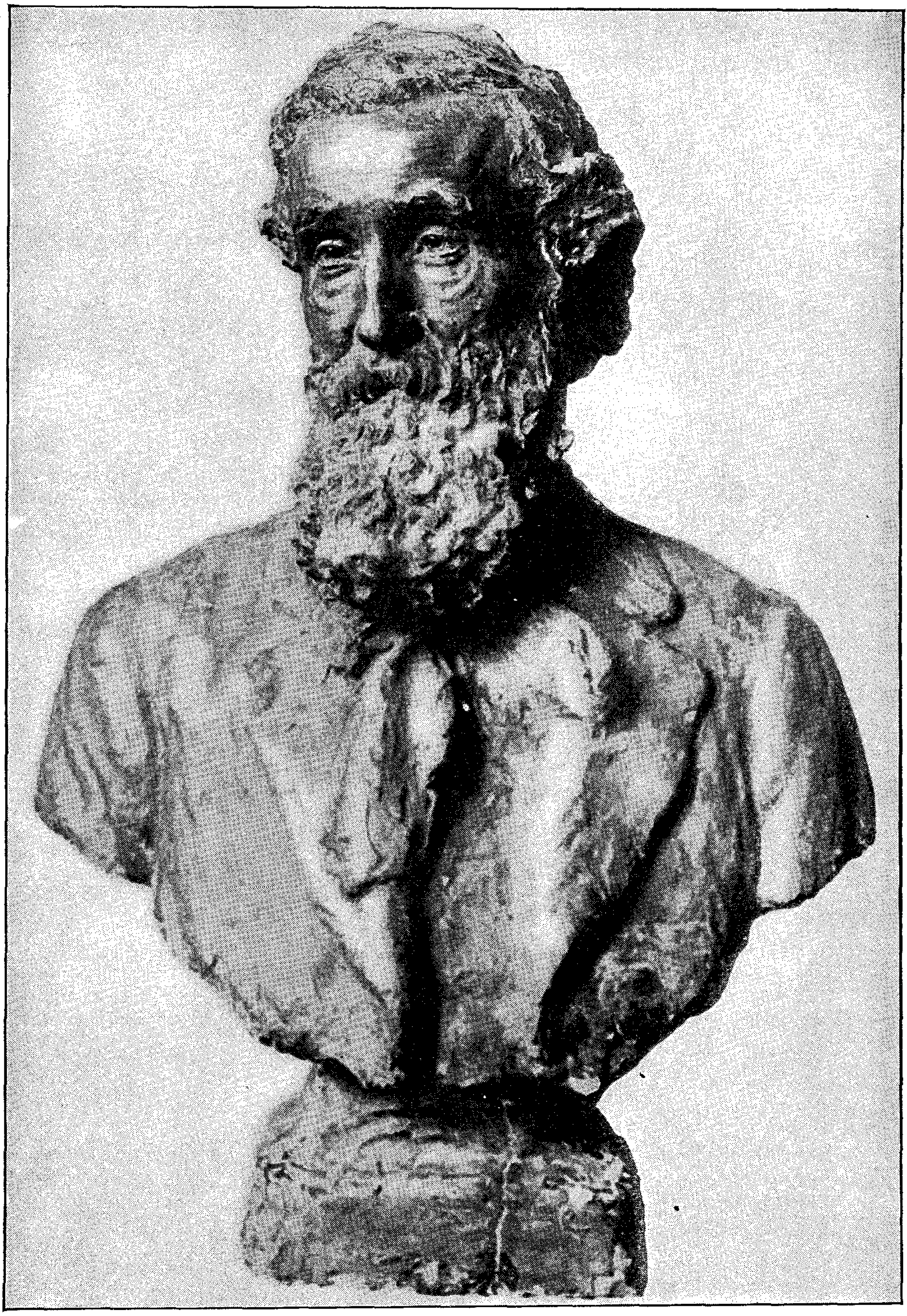
The picture shows the loading of the naval collier Cæsar at the Bush Terminal, Brooklyn, with foodstuffs, clothing, and medicinal supplies for Syrian relief. The cargo is consigned to the American Consul at Beirût, and represents a part of the American contribution for the relief of starving and expatriated Syrians and Armenians



PHOTOGRAPH BY PETER A. JULEY

A PRIZE-WINNING PICTURE AT THE WINTER EXHIBITION AT THE ACADEMY OF DESIGN, NEW YORK CITY

The picture, entitled "Charlotte," is by Mary D. Page, and received the Julia B. Shaw prize



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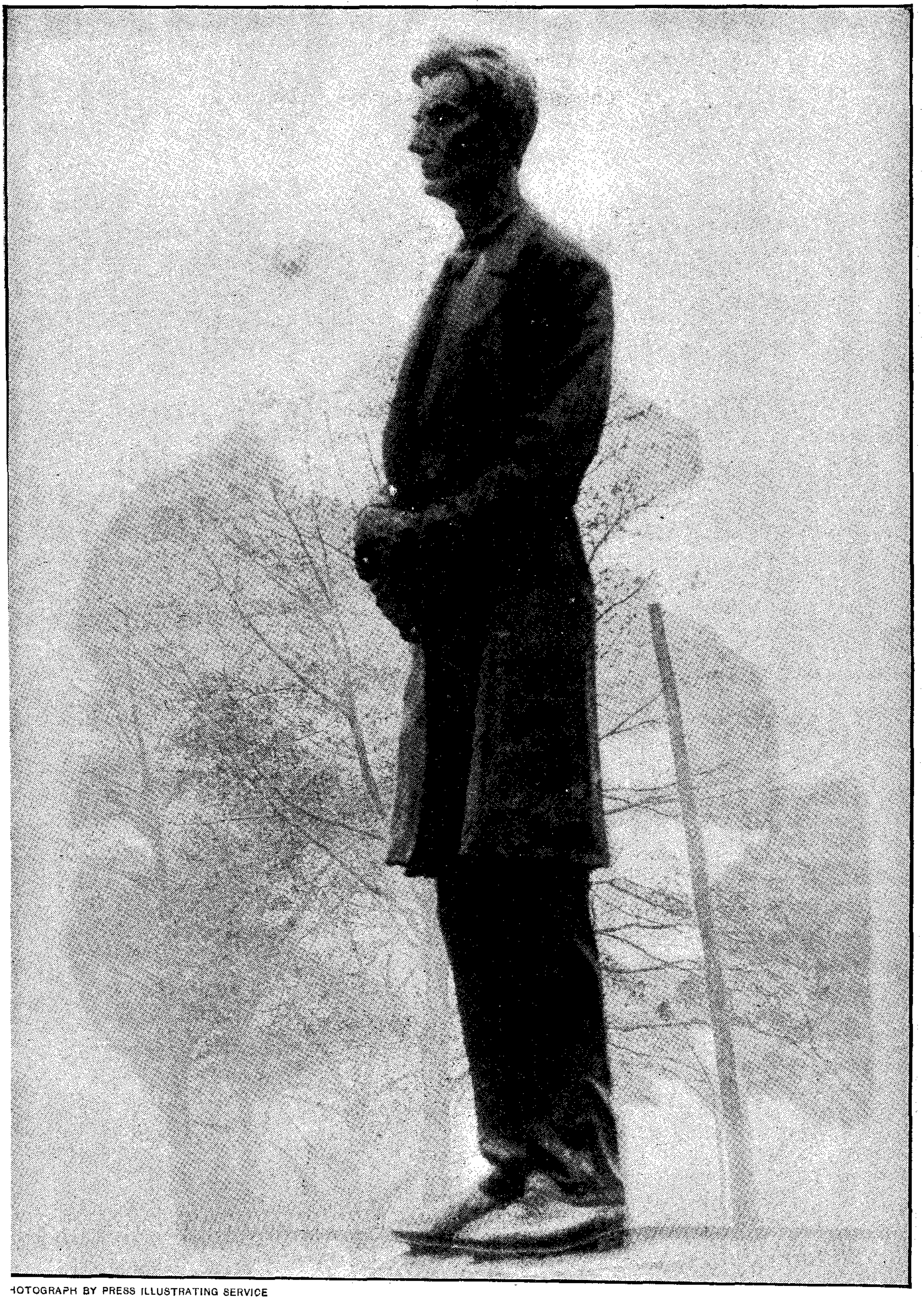
JOHN MUIR

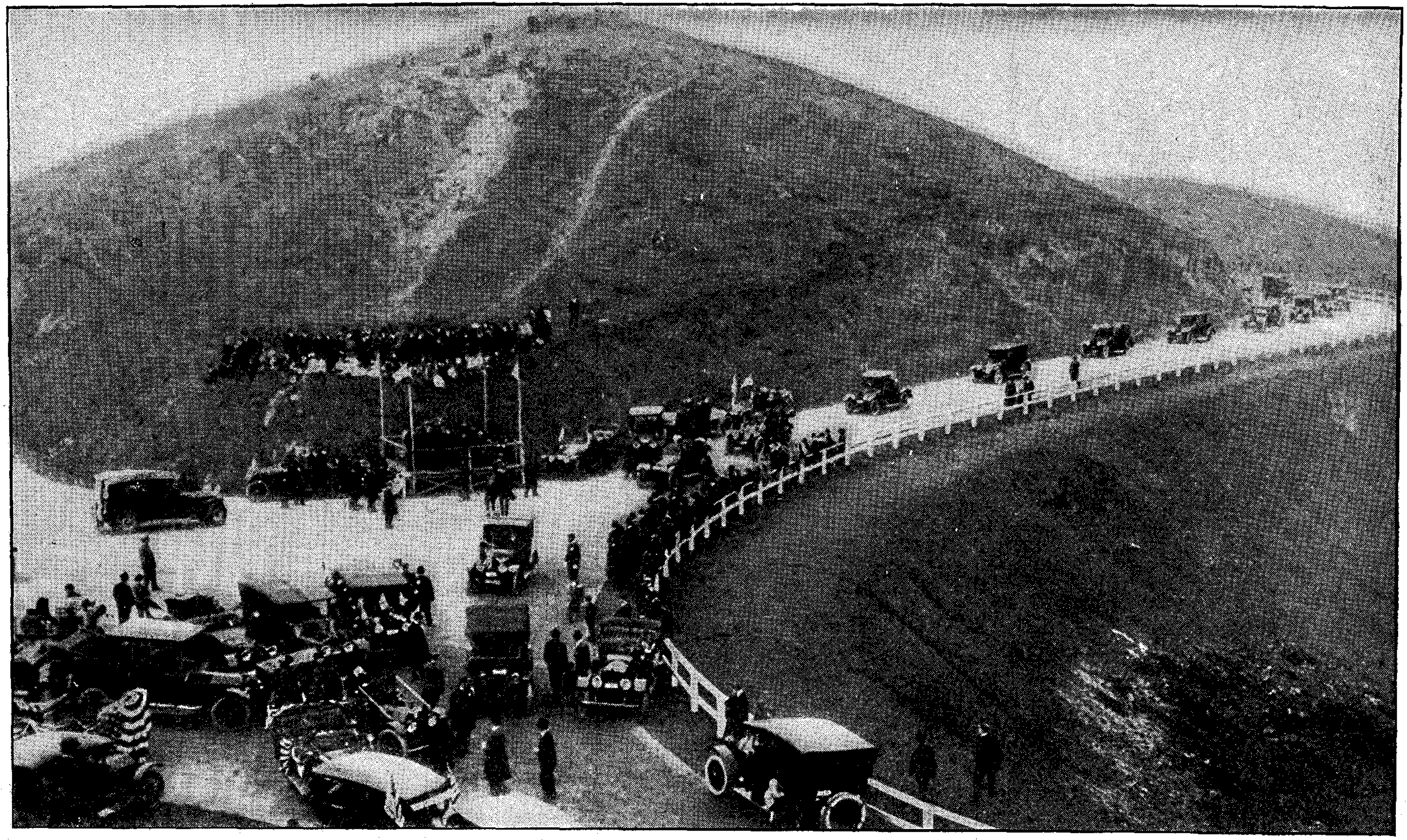
The bust above shown is of bronze, and is the work of C. S. Pietro, of New York. It was unveiled recently at Madison, Wisconsin, at the State University, to which the bust was presented by Mr. Thomas E. Brittingham, a resident of Madison. Addresses in eulogy of the eminent naturalist were made by Dr. Van Hise, President of the University, and others



HOTOGRAPH BY PRESS ILLUSTRATING SERVICE

ABRAHAM LINCOLN

'his statue, of heroic size, which has recently been completed by the sculptor, George Grey Barnard, is to be presented by Mrs. Charles P. Taft and others to the city of Cincinnati



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THE OPENING OF THE NEW BOULEVARD SYSTEM OF SAN FRANCISCO

The photograph shows the automobile parade which took place on the formal opening of the new boulevard system of San Francisco. The parade as represented is passing the "Twin Peaks"

FOR LOVE OF FRANCE

BY A. PIATT ANDREW

INSPECTOR-GENERAL OF THE AMERICAN AMBULANCE FIELD SERVICE IN FRANCE

THE American Ambulance Field Service in France has, if I may use language similar to that of railway men, made over a million ambulance miles since the war began. In other words, it has transported more than two hundred and fifty thousand wounded men an average of four miles each. This takes no account of the innumerable trips made in various directions and for various purposes where no unfortunate passengers were carried.

By reason of such transportation from battlefield to hospital, no doubt an immense number of lives have been saved, for in the business of saving wounded soldiers time is above all things essential, and the automobile saves time and substitutes a comparatively comfortable means of transport for the slow-going, lumbering, springless carts of other wars.

I think the above will justify the faith of our American friends whose generosity has so greatly helped to make our Service effective.

At the very start, let me say that, while the American Ambulance Field Service has always enjoyed pleasant relations with the American Red Cross, and many of our men are members of that great organization, and all have the greatest interest in its work in America, we have preferred that our Service in France should not be officially affiliated with it. Our Service was organized for the purpose of helping France—a concrete expression of our sympathy with the French people, our belief in the justice of their cause, our hope in its ultimate triumph. For that reason we have preferred not to be affiliated with an organization which inevitably also has agencies in Germany, Austria, Bulgaria, and Turkey—the enemies of France! It is important to make clear the distinction between the two organizations, because not infrequently generous Americans who have wanted to help our Service have mistakenly sent money or recruits intended for us to the Red Cross.

Although much has been written on the subject, let me say just a word as to the origin of the American Ambulance Field Service in France.

When the war broke out, Robert Bacon, former Ambassador to France, and a number of other Americans organized a military hospital, in connection with an American civil hospital, a quasi-philanthropic institution which had existed for many years in Paris, to care for the French wounded. This hospital had only a limited number of beds. So in a few weeks it was decided to undertake something on a larger scale. Through the French Government the Lycée Pasteur, an extensive school building then in process of construction at Neuilly, in the outskirts of Paris, was secured. This building had numerous large, well-ventilated, well-lighted rooms, and was capable of being equipped with at least six hundred beds. Through the generosity of many Americans interested in France all essentials were supplied, and by the time the German army got to within twenty-five miles of Paris the hospital was ready for service and was known as the American Ambulance. During the Franco-Prussian War of 1870 the American Government had presented a fully equipped field hospital, which bore the same name, to our sister Republic; but the present institution was due entirely to the initiative and generosity of individual Americans.

When the flood of German invasion surged close to Paris, American volunteers quickly constructed ten ambulances, making their bodies from the packing-cases in which the cars had been brought from America. These roughly constructed ambulances were used to bring in the wounded from the vicinity of Meaux, the nearest region to Paris which the enemy attained. But after the Battle of the Marne the German tide ebbed back some fifty miles from the capital, and it was no longer possible to bring the wounded all the way back to the hospitals in automobiles.

The French Government began rapidly to organize sections of ambulances, each division of the army—approximately twenty thousand soldiers—being equipped with its own section of automobile ambulances. Hospitals near the front were also expeditiously organized. Obviously these could not be located within the zone of shell fire, but school-houses and other public buildings anywhere from five to ten miles back from the actual firing line were pressed into service for hospital purposes, and to these hospitals the wounded were brought by the automobiles from the dressing stations near the trenches.

I went to France in December of 1914. Years before, as a student, I had lived in that country, and had come to know the endearing and admirable qualities of its people, and when the war broke out it was with a spirit of affection and admiration for France that I sought to render what service I could to a people in distress, to whose genius and ideals we in America owe so much of what makes life worth while.

For two months I drove an ambulance in Flanders and in the vicinity of Dunkirk in northern France. During that time we Americans learned a good deal about the needs of the army for transport service. We came to realize that the rapid carrying of the wounded from battlefield to hospital was quite as essential to the saving of their lives as was surgical treatment. It was clear that one way to help France was to place at her disposal a number of cars and volunteer American drivers. So it was decided that we should organize a service on a somewhat larger scale and endeavor to have the same attached directly to the French army.

Other cars having been given, and other Americans having offered themselves for the "cause," an attempt was made early in January, 1915, to establish a field service at the very front to operate independently of the American Hospital in Paris.

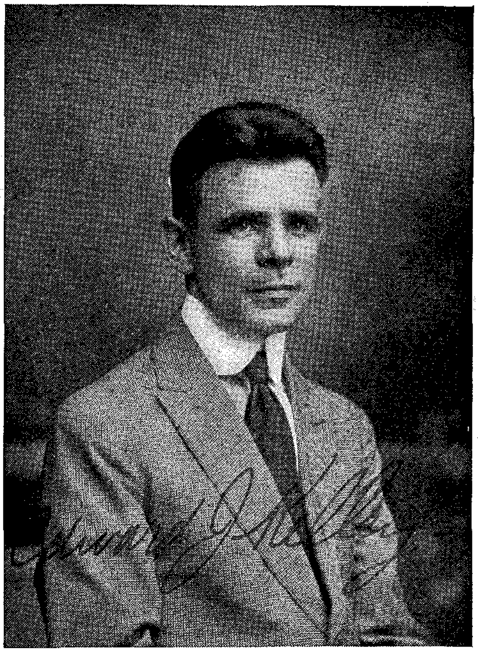
It was not until April, 1915, however, that we succeeded in persuading the French Government to allow our cars, driven by Americans, to go to the very front. Quite naturally the Government hesitated—although it did not actually object—to give our boys, neutrals, a position almost on the firing line, where they could observe every operation of the armies. There was also some hesitancy about submitting our boys to the risks which such service entailed. But we assured the Government, in the first place, that no man would be accepted for our service who was not known to be loyal to the cause of the Allies; and also that we were quite willing to incur the risks involved if only we could be of service to France.

In April of the same year we succeeded in having a section sent to that part of Alsace which the French had wrested from the Germans and were occupying. A section of the service, understand, consists of twenty-two ambulances of a light Ford model, with five or six auxiliary automobiles, including two repair cars, a large truck, a moving kitchen, and one or two staff cars for the officers. The first ambulance section was sent into the mountainous region of Alsace—a country traversed by steep and circuitous mule paths which had been somewhat enlarged to allow for the movement of troops, guns, and supplies. It was not believed possible that automobiles could negotiate these steep mountain roads, so for a few weeks we were permitted to operate only in the valley. But we finally persuaded the military authorities that with our little mountain-climbing cars we could do the work required of us in the rough upper country as well, and that, too, without interfering in any way with the military traffic. Permission being granted, we soon proved that we could operate through almost any country that a mule had been capable of traveling; and where the wounded had previously been transported to the hospitals on mule-back or in horse-drawn, springless carts, and with excruciating suffering to the victims, over a journey of four or five hours, we brought them in carefully suspended automobiles, with a minimum of suffering, and in an hour's time at that!

Early in May, 1915, we were able to offer the French Government another section, which they sent into Lorraine, and for nearly a year the men of this section worked in the region of Bois le Prêtre, where there were continual engagements, during which at least forty thousand Frenchmen gave their lives. Subsequently we supplied five more sections, and we now have two others in course of formation. We have operated sections of our own all along the five hundred miles of French front from Flanders to Switzerland, of from twenty to thirty ambulances to the section. Our little American cars, driven by American volunteers, have run over the flat plains of northern France and the little strip of Belgium which still remains in Belgian hands; they have rendered service along the Somme, where the great Franco-British offensive is now under way; have worked on the Aisne, in Champagne, in Lorraine, and in reconquered Alsace. At the great battle of Verdun we operated at one time no fewer than one hundred and twenty-five ambulances, and recently a section of thirty-five of our cars and drivers has been

A. PIATT ANDREW
Inspector-General of the American Ambulance Field Service in France

RICHARD NEVILLE HALL
Killed in Lorraine on service with the American Ambulance



EDWARD J. KELLEY
Killed near Verdun while on his way to rescue wounded with the American Ambulance

TWO AMERICANS WHO DIED "FOR LOVE OF FRANCE"

sent to Salonika to work with the French Army of the Orient.[1]

The personnel of this last-named section is typical of our service as a whole. It included eleven graduates or students of Harvard University, three each from Yale and Princeton, and one each from the University of Pennsylvania and the University of Virginia. In the service, as a whole, Harvard has shown more interest than any other college. We have had 114 Harvard graduates, about forty Yale men, a similar number from Princeton, and about a dozen each from the Universities of Columbia, Pennsylvania, Dartmouth, and Virginia, as well as representatives of about fifty other American universities. The Service has included doctors and lawyers, architects and painters—especially such as had been in France in their student days—brokers and business men, even a few clergymen, and several poets and writers of distinction, such as Henry Sydnor Harrison and Emery Pottle. They have varied in age as much as in profession. The youngest volunteer we have had is Julian Allen, of New York, who was only fifteen when he joined us. In applying, he stretched his age to seventeen, and, as he looked at least twenty, he was readily accepted. We have had, however, at least half a dozen who were over forty-five. In the matter of availability for service age does not seem to count; the young men are the most eager and the most active, but also they are the most restless in periods of slack work. The influence of the older men is particularly helpful in maintaining discipline at such periods.

One great difficulty in the handling of our sections of volunteers has been to keep them contented in periods of repose. Each ambulance section, be it understood, is attached to a division of the army, and a division rarely remains in a sector or region of intense activity at the front for much more than a fortnight at a stretch. The strain is too great and the losses may be heavy. So every division is moved from time to time to a quieter section, often to some village back from the front, where its men can get rested, its losses be repaired, and its equipment restored. This process of rehabilitation may take three or

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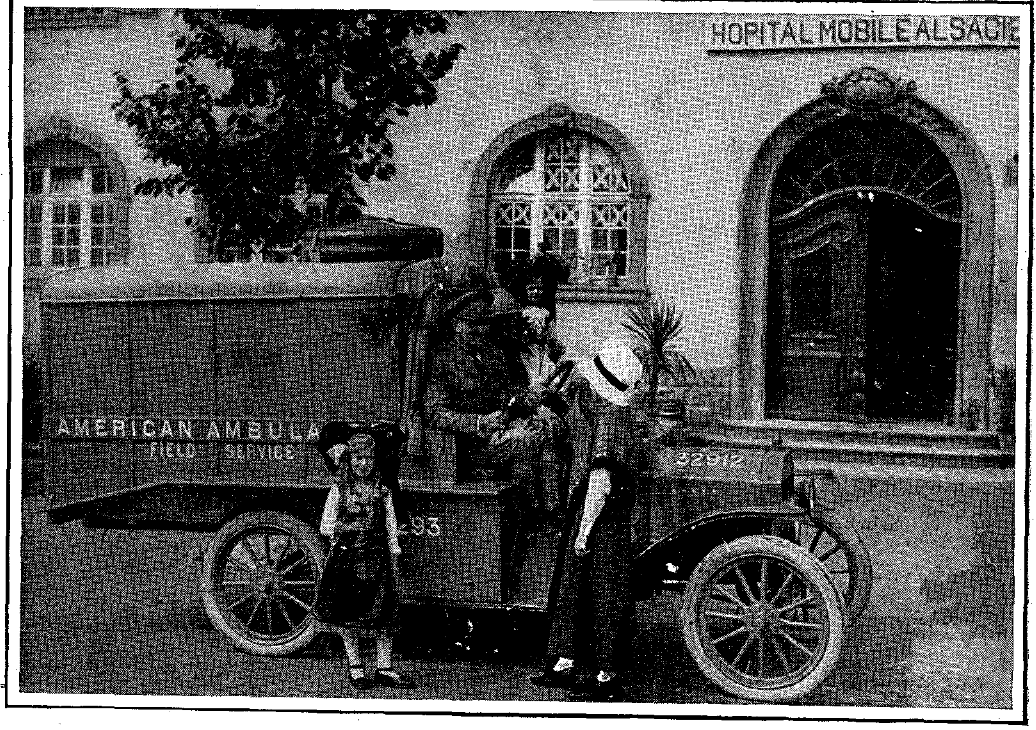
[1] Quite independently of the eight sections of the American Ambulance Field Service, it should be said that there are also two independent sections of ambulances in which Americans have served, the Anglo-American Volunteer Motor Ambulance Corps, conducted by Mr. Richard Norton, and a section controlled by the bankers Morgan-Harjes.


HOPITAL MOBILE ALSACIE
AMERICAN AMBULA
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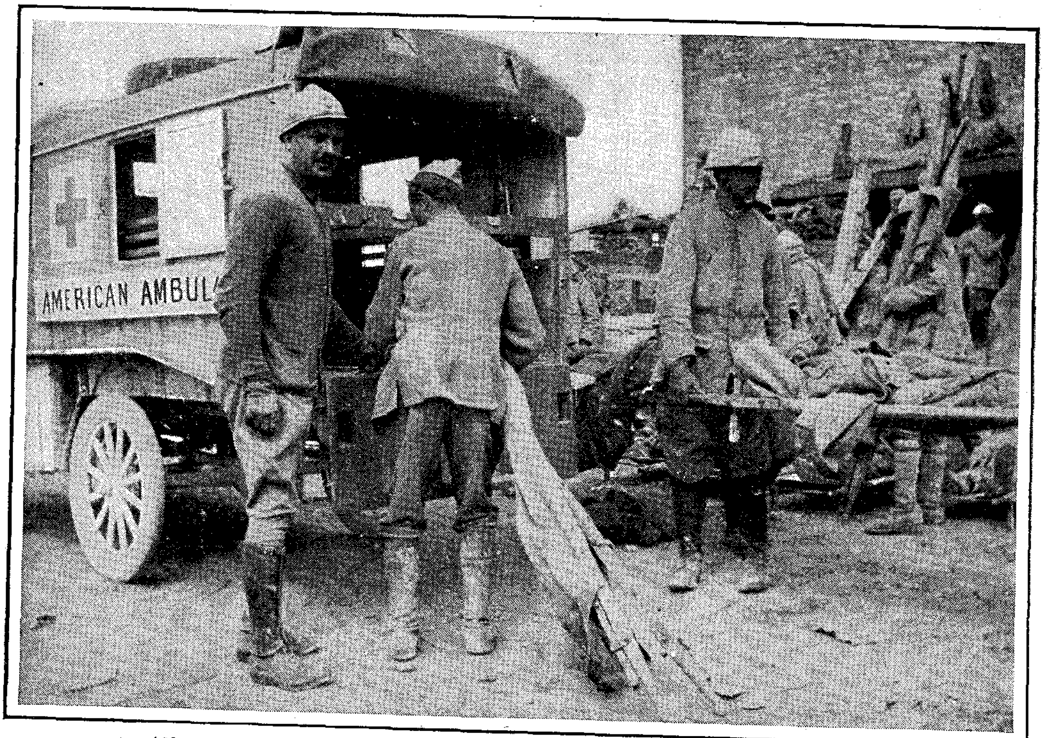
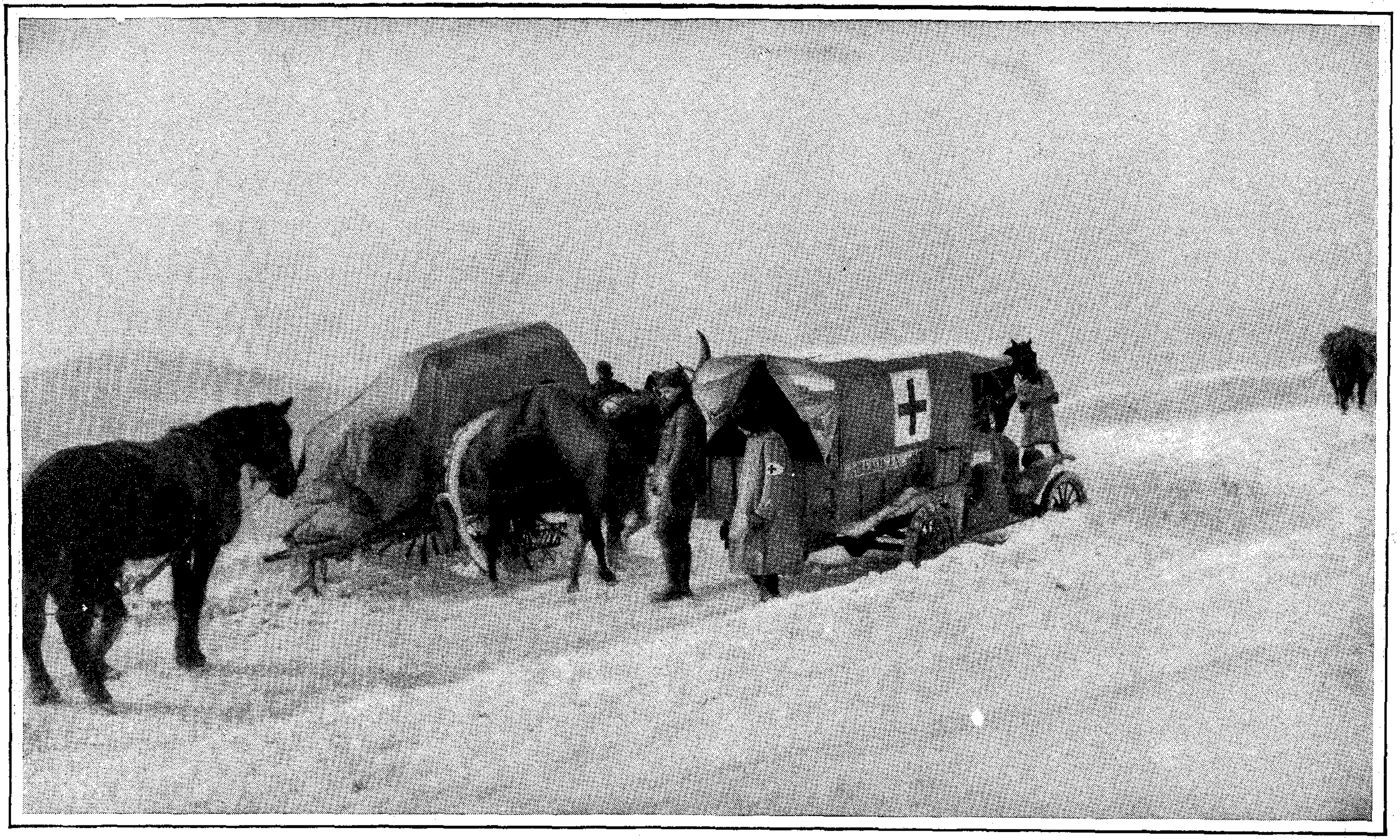
ALSATIAN CHILDREN AT ST. AMARIN PRESENTING BOUQUETS TO MR. ANDREW


AMERICAN AMBUL

AN AMERICAN AMBULANCE AT A DRESSING STATION NEAR VERDUN



AMERICAN AMBULANCES IN THE MOUNTAINS OF ALSACE AFTER A SNOW-STORM four weeks, or even longer, during which the ambulance corps has little to do and its members tend to become restless.

During these periods of repose life at the front is by no means without interest. The soldiers arrange various forms of entertainment. It not infrequently happens that an impromptu theater with cleverly contrived scenery and footlights is set up in a barn, and the dramatic and musical talent in the army arrange performances with songs and dances and instrumental pieces, and often with dialogues and plays containing satirical comments on the Germans and on the political situation in France, with occasional allusions to America, as, for instance, to President Wilson's "belles-lettres" or to non-exploding shells, which are spoken of as "Wilsons." In fact, one sees entertainments in the rear during these periods of repose that would be well worth attending in Paris itself.

Frenchmen are either artists or artisans, and when they have leisure they turn their talents to good effect. They make the finger rings which have become so familiar, inkstands, paper-cutters, cigarette boxes, and even musical instruments, from pieces of shells and other materials which they find at hand. And not infrequently they organize in barns or sheds not far from the trenches a *salon d'automne* or a *salon d'été* to exhibit their paintings, sketches, water-colors, and *objets d'art.*

Our volunteers are in most cases not expert mechanics but, as almost every American boy knows something about automobiles, and as the cars we use are of simple construction, it is possible to conduct a service with only one man for each car. We have, however, one paid mechanic—an American—in each section, whose business it is to diagnose the difficulties that arise in the handling of the cars and to show the men of the section how to correct these difficulties. The individual driver not only looks after the loading and unloading of the wounded whom he transports, but he oils, greases, and repairs his own car. The men become very much attached to their cars because of the labor they spend on them, and bestow upon them pet names—"Maude," "Susan," "Lottie," "Agnes," "Elsie," and the like.

It is very hard for any one living on this side of the world, where conditions are so prosperous and happy, to realize the nature of the work which our American volunteers have willingly assumed. They drive their cars to the point nearest to the trenches to which a wheeled vehicle can go—sometimes a shattered farm-house, sometimes the cellar of a ruined château, sometimes merely a hole dug deep in the ground. These are dressing stations, the places to which the stretcher-bearers bring the wounded from the trenches for preliminary treatment before removal to the nearest hospital. In many cases the dressing stations are intermittently under an arch of flying shells going in both directions, and they are sometimes subject to the fire of rifles and rapid-fire guns as well. Nevertheless our men have been extremely fortunate. Only two have been killed—Richard Hall, of Ann Arbor, Michigan, whose car was hit by a shell as he was driving up Hartmannsweilerkopf on Christmas Eve, 1915; and Edward Kelley, of Philadelphia, who was killed on his first trip to a dressing station in the vicinity of Dead Man's Hill, near Verdun, in September, 1916.

Bear in mind, the work of most of our sections is carried on at night in total darkness, not even a lighted cigarette being permitted at some of the posts. As the cars draw near to the front the drivers cannot sound a horn lest they advise the enemy that automobiles are on the road. The enemy has the range of all the roads. To be sure, they might not shell an ambulance, but there is no way of knowing in the night that it isn't an ammunition wagon that's approaching. For weeks at a time our drivers operate their cars night after night without any lights on the darkest nights except such as come from illuminating rockets from the trenches, along roads heavily encumbered with moving artillery, motor trucks, marching troops, and all the traffic of war, often in the midst of heavy shell fire, and picking their way carefully to avoid here and there the black spots in the road which indicate holes made by shells. Sometimes they run their cars into these holes and have to wait until passing troops can lift them out and set them once more on their way. Often when the dawn comes they go to sleep on a bloody stretcher in the back of a dirty ambulance or in a chilly tent in sleet or rain. It sometimes happens that they are compelled to work for forty-eight hours at a stretch with scarcely a moment's rest of any kind. They live like the soldiers, on the common army food—dried vegetables, canned meats, more or less the same day after day; they see nothing for months at a time of the outer world, and have nothing enter into their thoughts week after week but the most sordid side of the business of war.

No man can pass through such an experience unchanged. With our men it has been a strengthening, a refining, a democratizing, a spiritualizing process. Notwithstanding their suffering, they have taken out much more than they put in. One Harvard graduate—out of college twelve or fourteen years, living an idle, care-free life, playing bridge and doing the social functions—when asked his business in civil life, replied: "I have never done much of anything, sir, up to the present. But I doubt when the war is over whether I shall ever be happy doing that again."

Another man of similar associations, after working in Alsace with the Chasseurs Alpins, remarked that he looked forward to the time when back in New York—after the war—he would be called on the telephone by the familiar voice of one of those Chasseurs. Said he: "I can't imagine anything that will give me more pleasure than to re-encounter that man in New York. His name is François. He is the second cook in the Knickerbocker Hotel, and the finest gentleman I ever knew!"

As I have said, notwithstanding all hardships and risks, our men have gained much more than they have given in this war. It is a privilege even in peace times to live in the gentle country of France, surrounded by all the wonderful architectural heritages of her past and in contact with her gifted, sensitive, and highly intelligent people. One learns constantly new lessons in courtesy and in consideration for others, and one inevitably gains a better perspective about the things which make life worth while. To live in France to-day means all this and much more. To see a nation facing mortal danger with the courage, good humor, and tenacity the French people display, giving to their country willingly all that they have or can hope for, smiling in the midst of suffering and unmindful even of death, means for every American volunteer an inspiration to patriotism such as no other experience in life could ever offer.

Our two hundred volunteer drivers in the American Ambulance Field Service have served with a spirit of intense devotion, and tens of thousands of other Americans on this side of the water have in manifold ways devoted all their energies for the past two years to the making of dressings and clothing and the providing of comforts for the soldiers and widows and orphans of France; but, after all, what we have done is infinitesimally small compared with the needs and sacrifices of France, or compared with what France has done for us. When Lord Cornwallis surrendered at Yorktown, and the Revolution, which had lasted for seven years, was brought to its end, there were as many French soldiers in the army to which he surrendered as there were Americans, and, in addition, there was the great French fleet in the harbor which had driven the British fleet away. France spent for us during the American Revolution no less than seven hundred million dollars, and yet at the end of the war she asked for not one sou or one inch of territory as recompense. We owe to France our existence as an independent nation, but, more than that, along with the rest of the world, we owe to France the inspiration which she has given in every field of art and thought.

On every French silver coin and on every French postage stamp is the figure of a graceful, slender woman walking toward the dawn, sowing with a swinging arm as she walks—a figure designed by Roty, the greatest of French engravers, to symbolize the rôle of France in the world. France has for centuries been the sower of the world's civilization. She has not always reaped where she sowed. She sowed, and England reaped. She sowed America, and England and the United States reaped; she sowed the Suez Canal, and England reaped; she sowed the Panama Canal, and America and the rest of the world have reaped. She sowed the automobile, aeroplane, and the submarine—the very instruments of war which to-day have been so effectively used against her. The Wright brothers received no recognition or encouragement in America when they discovered the mastery of the air. It was first of all in France that they received the encouragement and help which enabled them to go on with their experiments. In architecture and painting, in sculpture, in the drama, in mathematics—in virtually every field of thought—the world at large is indebted to France for inspiration and encouragement. Even in the present war France has gained for herself new laurels. She has committed no moral blunders, has laid herself open to no criticisms, has violated no treaties, has trespassed upon none of the established conventions of warfare; so far as such a thing is possible she has conducted the hideous processes of war with gallantry as well as with indomitable valor. The whole world, including even her enemies, to-day does reverence to France and recognizes in her a combatant without fear and also without reproach.

For all that Americans have done to help France the French people are appreciative far beyond our merits. The various hospitals maintained by Americans, and the large quantities of supplies for these hospitals and the volunteer surgeons, nurses, ambulance drivers, and legionaries sent over from America, inspire in the French people a deep and appreciative response. The little ambulances seen here and there along the front seem to make their soldiers feel that all America is with them, and every American boy who gives his life for the service of France, as two of our American ambulance boys and at least three of the American aviators have done, is to them the equivalent of a whole American army division serving with them.

Last June a squadron of German aeroplanes flew over Bar-le-Duc, dropping bombs over the city, killing sixty-odd and wounding one hundred and fifty, mostly civilians. From the moment that the first bomb was dropped from the sky and the people in general rushed to their cellars our little American cars began cruising about the city, picking up the victims here and there, but running at the same time the risk of themselves being blown to pieces. They were the only ambulances in the city at that time, and about a week later an official was sent from Bar-le-Duc to our headquarters in Paris to express the appreciation of the people of Bar-le-Duc for the services rendered. "There is not a man, woman, or child in Bar-le-Duc," he said, "who will not always feel more friendly toward America for what your American volunteers did for them in that hour of their great trial."

Every one of the sections of the American Ambulance Field Service has received the Croix de Guerre, and fifty-four individual members of the Service have been decorated with that medal, while two have received the Médaille de Militaire, the highest reward for valor which the French army can confer.

When, at the end of September, 1916, one of our ambulance sections was suddenly detached from an army division in Lorraine in order to join the French Army of the Orient in the Balkans, the general in command of the division with which this section had served expressed himself as follows:

"At the moment when an unexpected order of departure deprives the 129th Division of American Sanitary Section No. 3 the general of the division desires to express to all its members his deepest thanks.

"Since the 25th April, 1916, the section has followed the division to the various points on the front where it has been in action—at Lay St. Christophe, in the dangerous sector of Thiaumont, at Verdun, and at Bois-le-Prêtre.

"The American volunteers have everywhere shown an unforgetable example of devotion.

"They carry away with them the gratitude of our wounded, the admiration of all those who have seen them at work, and the regrets caused by their departure.

"They leave behind them an example which it will be sufficient to recall when in another Verdun their successors will be called upon to show the courage and self-abnegation so necessary in the accomplishment of their mission."

A week later the general in command of a division in the vicinity of Dead Man's Hill, near Verdun, with which another of our sections had been serving, wrote as follows:

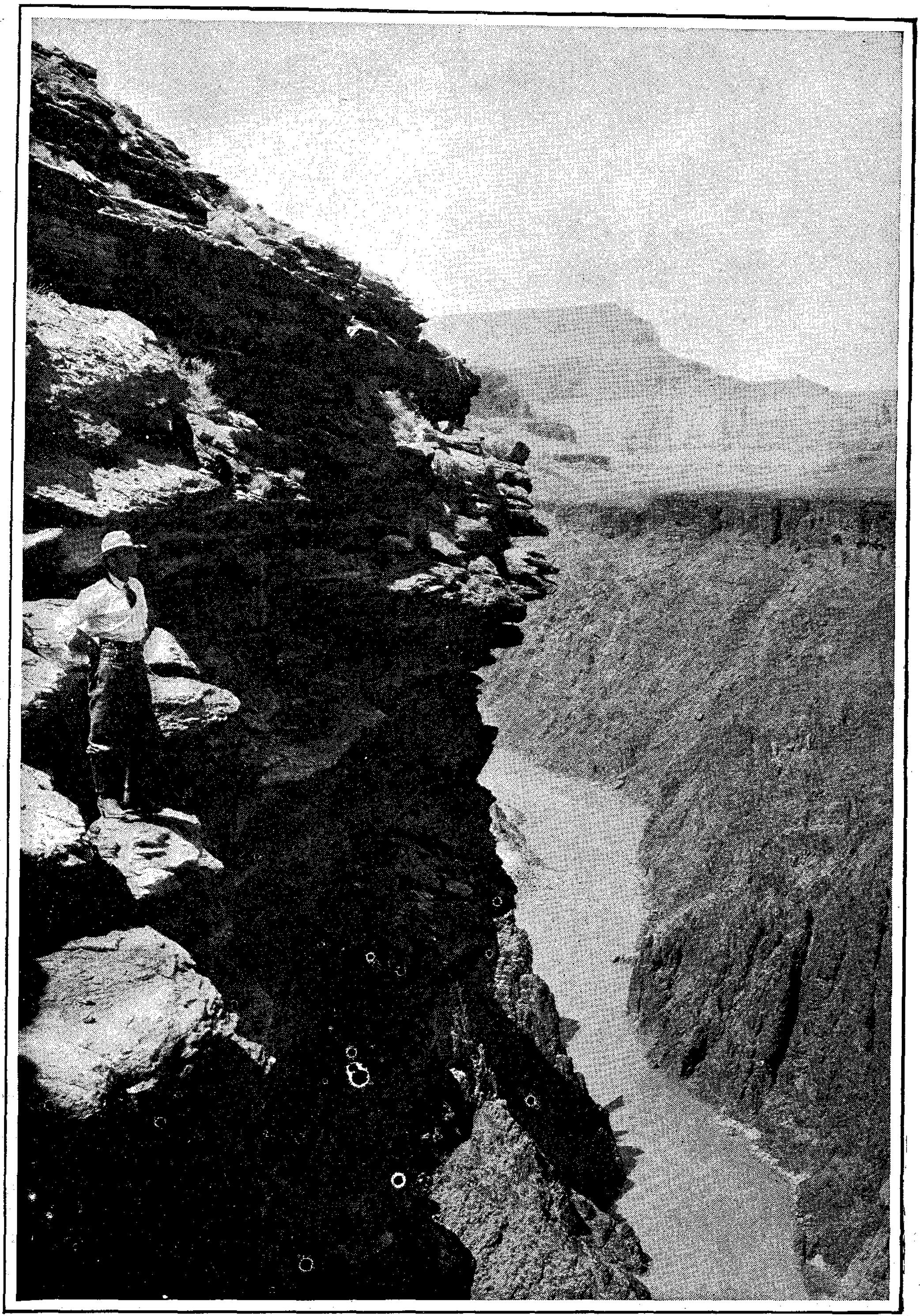
"I wish to express to you my congratulations for the unwearied activity, the devotion, and the fearless contempt of danger shown by the drivers of American Sanitary Section No. 2 under your command since their arrival at the division, and particularly in the course of the days and nights from the 18th to the 20th September.

"The American drivers have shown themselves worthy sons of the great and generous nation for the emancipation of which our ancestors shed their blood."

These are characteristic examples, of which many more might be cited, of the feeling of the French army toward the American Ambulance Field Service. I will quote only one more tribute from a letter just received from an officer upon the staff of General Joffre:

"The work of the American Ambulance Field Service is the most beautiful flower of the magnificent wreath offered by the great America to her valiant little Latin sister.

"Those who, like you and your friends, are consecrating themselves entirely to our cause, up to and including even the sacrifice, deserve more than our gratitude. It is impossible for the future to separate them from our own."



"NO HUMAN LANGUAGE CAN DESCRIBE THE TERRIFIC BEAUTY OF THAT CHASM"

SEE AMERICA FIRST

BY ALBERT BUSHNELL HART

IF the geologists have correctly judged, the universe "saw America first" when the Laurentian hills first arched their backs above the chaos of the New World. More than four hundred years ago Christopher Columbus made a great success with his first personally conducted party to America. Ever since his time discoverers and explorers, traders of fur and diggers of gold and searchers of bottom land, zoölogists and archæologists, hunters and fishers, have been seeing parts of America first; till there are only a few thousand untrodden peaks and unvisited lakes in the whole area of the two American continents.

In this current phrase, as in many other ways, we of the United States arrogate to ourselves the sole right to be called "America." Native Indians, frosty Eskimos, descendants of Spanish and Portuguese who arrived decades before the Pilgrim Fathers—all these are set aside in order that we may be "The Americans." After all, there is some reason in our appropriating the name: we have more than half the population of the two Americas, and by far the larger share of scenic wonders. To apply a commercial term to natural beauties which are beyond any valuation in currency, "we have the goods." In view of our majestic ports, grand rivers, prodigious lakes, and scenic mountains and abysses, nothing but the native modesty of the American keeps us from openly boasting of the natural beauties of our land.

What a giant pleasure it has been for those who first reached, first viewed, and first recorded these splendors of nature! Who would not be a Verrazano, making a long tack around a finger-shaped sand-spit, and so into a magnificent bay, where two rivers converged, and between them rose a rocky promontory which the Dutch later called Manhattan? Think of being Champlain on Lake Huron, or Radisson on Lake Superior, or one of the rowers in La Salle's galley when it reached the salt water at the mouth of the Mississippi! It were a distinction to be the only white man who had ever seen Niagara Falls, instead of the ten millionth man. Every normal and proper-minded boy would like with Lewis and Clarke and the Bird Woman, to scramble across the divide and plunge down an unknown gorge to the Columbia and the ocean. It makes one's mouth water to think of Verendrye first viewing the far-off Rockies, or Pike discerning the far-distant cloud across the plains, which gradually solidified into a majestic mountain, later to be called Pike's Peak.

Part of the discoverer's joy may be realized by following the trail of Lewis and Clarke in a Pullman car, or completing the desperate achievement of ascending Pike's Peak in a twelve-seated automobile. Every American may still have the thrill of seeing great things for the first time—for him. Uncounted multitudes have climbed their first mountain, and looked for the first time on the Pacific Ocean. The writer once heard Major Powell lecture on his all but impossible boat journey down through the gorge of the Colorado; but everybody who stands on the ledge at Bright Angel may discover for himself the awful grandeur of that chasm, as though it had never before been seen by mortal eye. We Americans are just waking up to the soul-shocks which await the traveler in the far West, for it is only a few years since the Pacific roads opened up the country. The recesses of the Rocky Mountains are at last being revealed to the plain and humble tourist. Though we all have a low opinion of "tourists" in general, we except our own touring and appreciate the easy access to nature.

The automobile has solved many problems of transport for the admirer of nature. The automobilist wants to go somewhere; that means a road. He wants to see something; that means the opening up of a lake, a peak, or a gorge. He wants something to eat; that means a comfortable inn. Till recently a man who wanted to make himself familiar with the Rocky Mountains had to organize an expedition with guides, pack-horses, and camping outfit; hence most of him stayed at home. Now the United States Government and the States are co-operating in setting apart the most picturesque places and areas as permanent parks, and in building highways which intersect and connect these magnificent National playgrounds.

Some people are very set on privacy in their interviews with Lady Nature. A dweller in Estes Park, in a house of her own, far back from any main highway, recently protested against a proposed road through the recesses of the Rockies, which would bring " such a throng of automobilists." She was sitting in her own automobile at the moment; and motorless tourists had a right to think that she was no better than those objectionable scurryers.

The truth is that no mountain is made smaller by being admired by multitudes. The "crowding" of vast areas of mountain, forest, and river, such as the Sierra Nevadas, for instance, is a myth. Anybody who dislikes the numbers in the Yosemite Valley may reduce the crowd by "hitting the trail" out into the King River Canyon. If other people "crowd into" the King River Canyon, he can take to the Hetch Hetchy. What the scenic grumbler really wants is to pitch on a particularly beautiful spot, easy of access, and then drive off anybody else who would like equally well to stay in that beautiful spot, so easy of access. If the aloof Bostonian dislikes the jostling of his city, he may hie himself to the Maine woods. One of the splendid things about the grandeurs of America is that they are open to the democracy. You may fence in the seashore at Bar Harbor, but not the prism of the Grand Canyon. Nobody need be afraid that the number of travelers will ever overwhelm the available pleasure-grounds of America.

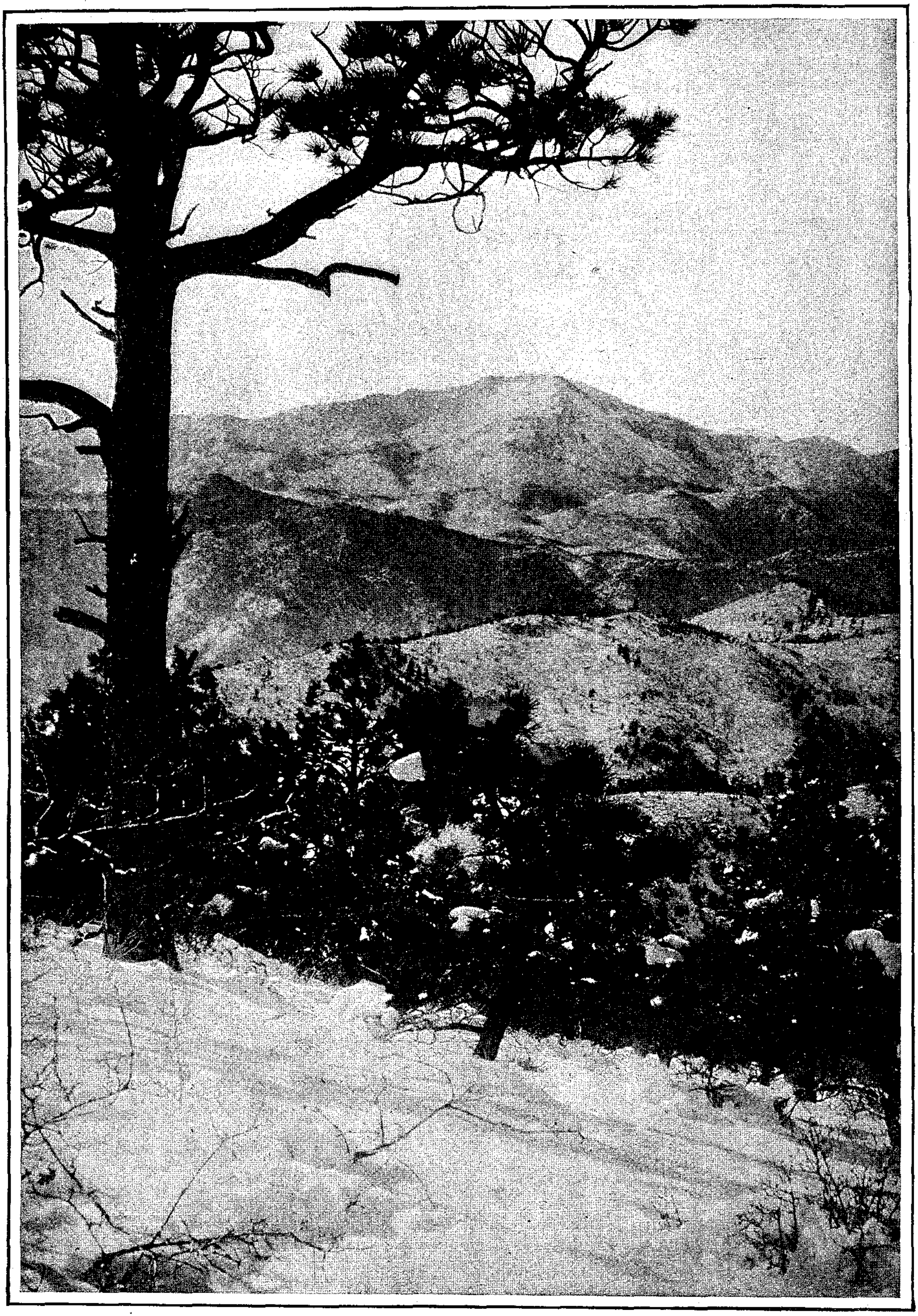
The wise man finds every part of the United States full of natural beauty. New England offers its rugged and picturesque seacoast. Its mountains are restrained in height, and, except for such wonders as the Old Man of the Mountains, can boast few natural sculptures of cliff and peak. Still he who has not seen the Mount Monadnock region, with its forests and lake gems and roaring brooks, has not seen America. The Appalachian Mountains are in most places low, worn-down, and monotonous in their pattern of long parallel ridges and valleys. Nevertheless they include the caverns of Luray and the Natural Bridge of Virginia, which would be admired wonders in any country of the world. Down in the South you may seek Grandfather's Mountain, or Mount Mitchell, or such scenic points as Blowing Rock and Toxaway, from which stretch billowy forest slopes.

In the interior the most magnificent gift of nature is Niagara—so big, so convenient, so easy to see, that we forget its rare beauty. The Great Lakes offer a system of navigation through broad waters, wide sweeping rivers, beautiful straits, and picturesque islands. One of the most enjoyable water journeys in the world was forever lost when the steamer trade on the Mississippi decayed. That was the poetry of travel, with its surprises of an ever-winding channel, its picturesque people, white and black, and its old towns, culminating at the crowded levee of New Orleans.

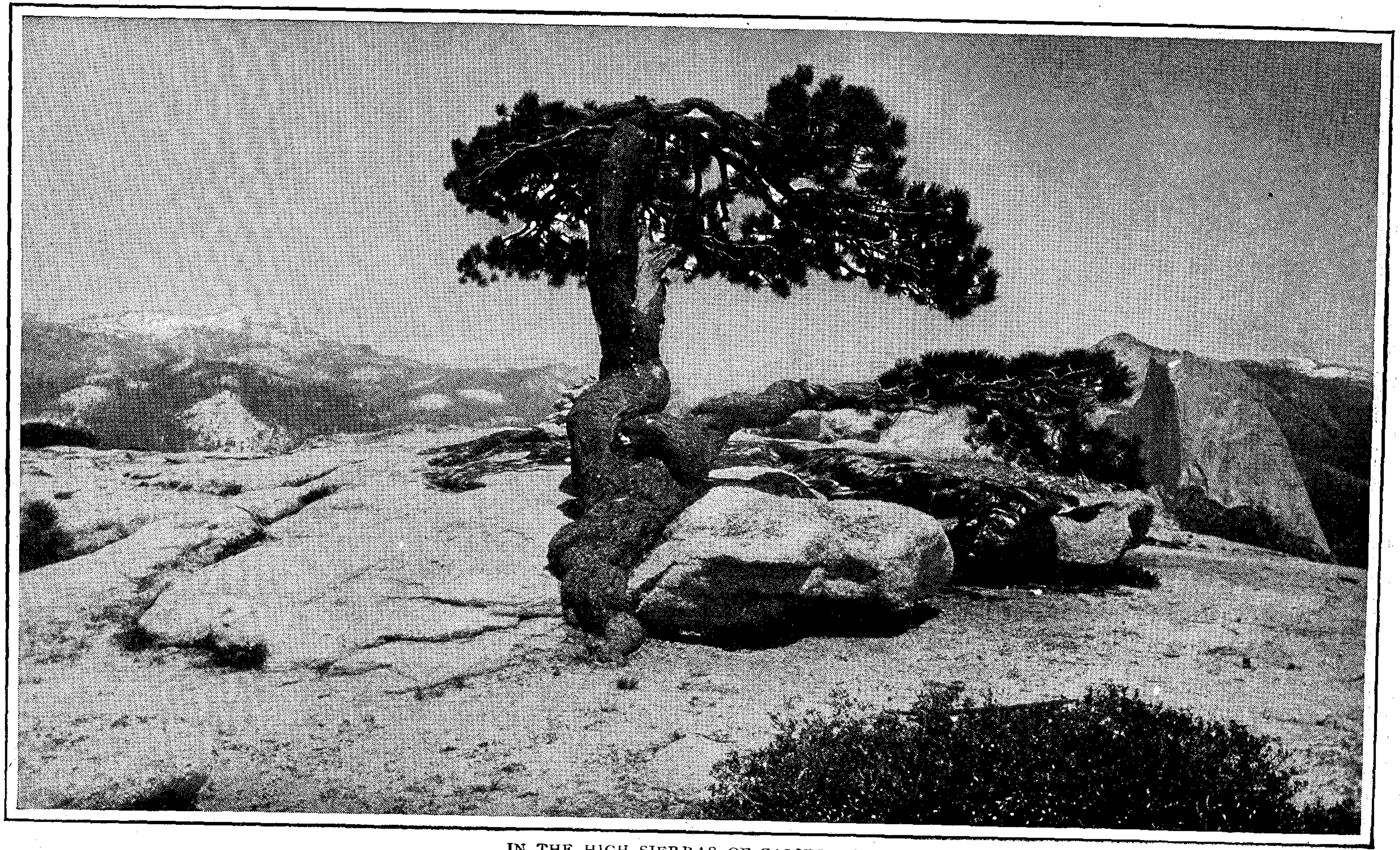
The modern all-rail substitute for the great river has its scenic advantages; such as the Burlington route from Chicago to Minneapolis, which skirts the Mississippi for hundreds of miles. There is something inspiriting in the rolling prairie of the Northwest, rising and falling like immense billows on the ocean. Greater majesty is seen on the great flat prairies of the Middle West. A ride across Texas from east to west in April is a thing to remember for a lifetime.

Beyond the Missouri the country rises slowly and steadily till from the Pullman window or from a motor car the eye catches the far-off summits of Gray's and Long's and James, and the rest of the towering hosts of the Rocky Mountains. From north to south this wonderland has at last been opened up. On the Canadian border lies Glacier Park, first explored many years ago, but recently rediscovered. The Almighty furnished the mountains; the United States Government has set them apart as a National Park; the Great Northern Railroad deposits the visitor in comfortable inns or in magnificent hotels at the base of the mountains, in one of the most splendid regions of the earth. The scenery is alpine—lakes running up into mountain gorges, flanked with cascades and carrying the eye upward to massive mountains, glaciers, and waterfalls. Trails lead in various directions through and across these mountains, for the accommodation of man and beast.

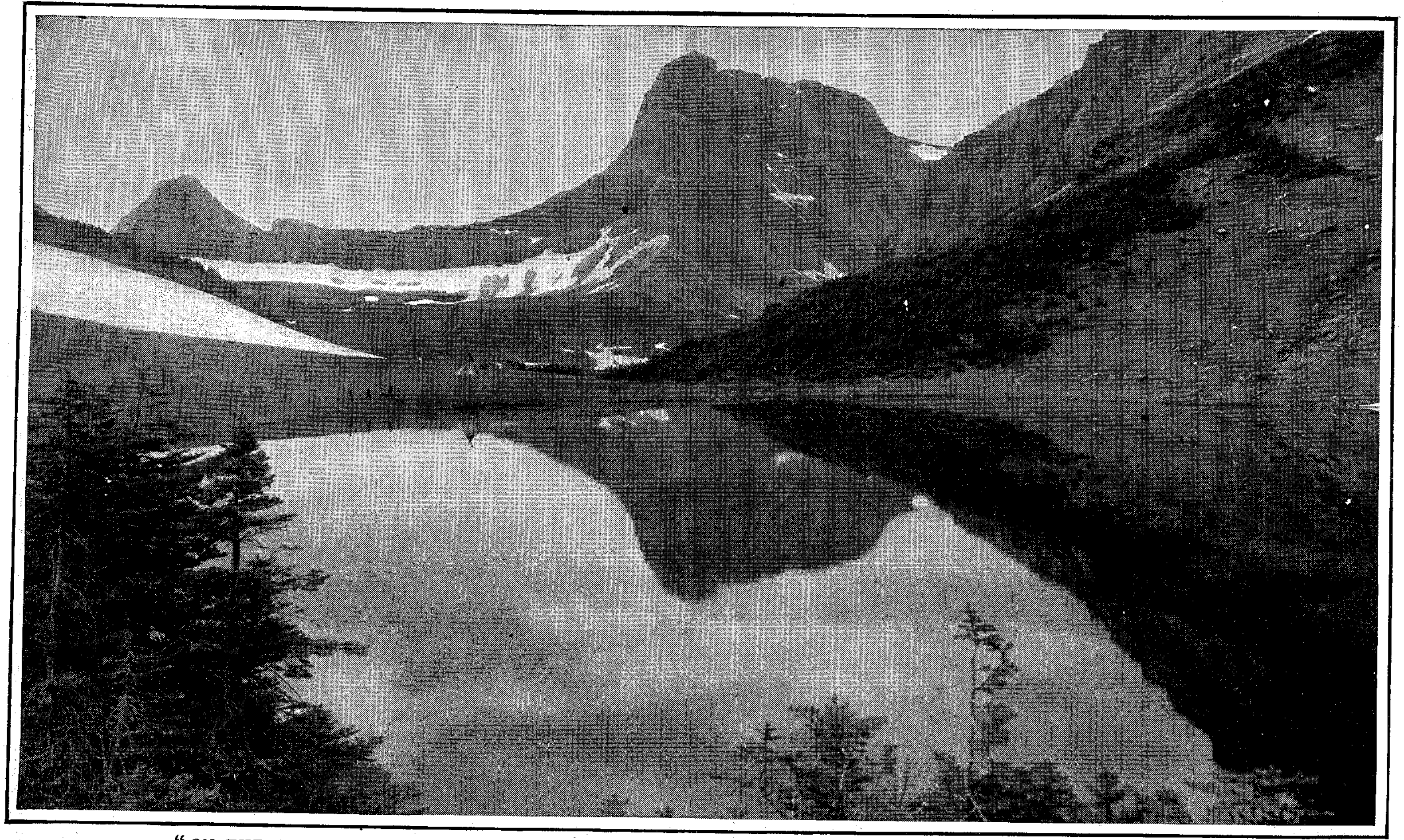
Southward, the next scenic area is the Yellowstone, where this year the remarkable discovery has been made that automobile travel will not kill the fish nor stop the geysers. Most of the scenery is inferior to other parts of the Rocky Mountains, but the geyser glory is unsurpassed. From Laramie south to Santa Fé the Rockies abound in glorious scenery. The most highly developed tourist center is Estes Park, which is reached through the magnificent gorge of the Big Thompson. The floor of the Park is about 7,500 feet



" A MAJESTIC MOUNTAIN, LATER TO BE CALLED PIKE'S PEAK "



IN THE HIGH SIERRAS OF CALIFORNIA



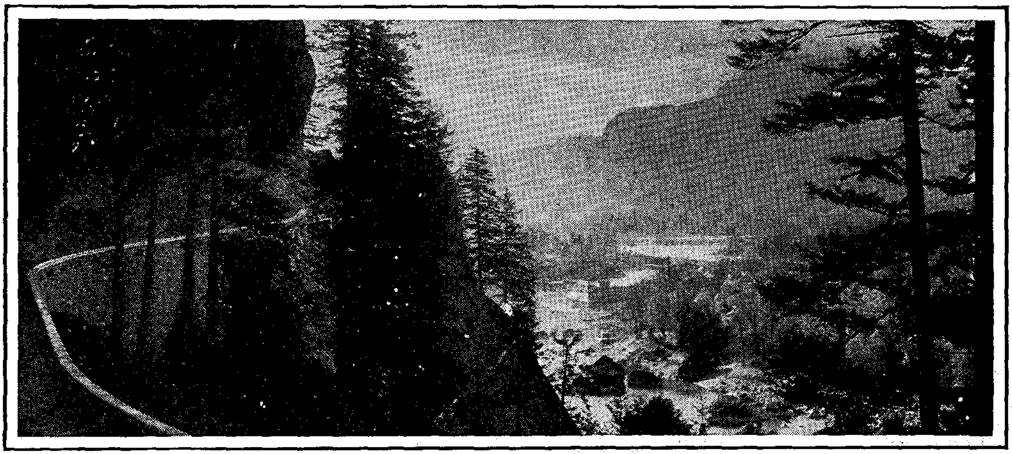
"ON THE CANADIAN BORDER LIES GLACIER PARK, ONE OF THE MOST SPLENDID REGIONS OF THE EARTH" above the sea, and a circle of snow mountains towers 5,000 to 6,500 feet above it. The city of Denver has taken up a tract of mountains farther south, which is becoming one of the noblest public parks in existence. Automobile roads are extending through the tangled range of high mountains. Still farther south, Colorado Springs is becoming one of the pleasure cities of the land, with its unique nearness to the bold mountains culminating in Pike's Peak.

New Mexico and Arizona have their peculiar splendors. The deserts are a dream of color and light. Near by lies the Grand Canyon of the Colorado, with which it is as difficult to be intimate as with the Atlantic Ocean. No human language can describe or suggest the terrific beauty of that chasm. Not to see it is to be ignorant of creation. North of it are those amazing natural bridges in southern Utah, which as yet can be reached only by well-furnished expeditions which carry their own water.

The Pacific coast is by all odds the most scenic part of the United States. It is the only coast which breaks off from steep mountains into deep water. It is the only part of the United States which is Mediterranean in sea and sky and vegetation. It contains almost the only group of sentimental ruins in its chain of Spanish missions. It includes the Yosemite Valley, which is as unapproachable in its kind as the Grand Canyon. It nourishes groves of big trees which are so much older than the oldest oaks of the East that they make California seem ancient. It has in the Golden Gate a waterway comparable with the Straits of Gibraltar. Farther north is the chain of volcanic snow peaks, which is without a parallel anywhere within the boundaries of the United States—Shasta, Jefferson, Hood, St. Helens, Glacier, Adams, Shukshan, Baker, and Mount Rainier, king of the whole stately line. As Izaak Walton said of the strawberry, God might have made a more magnificent mountain than Mount Rainier, but doubtless he never did.

Jumping over British Columbia, again we "See America First" in Alaska, where the combination of sea, ice, and rock create a kind of scenery outside the experience of most Americans. Words cannot describe the chain of islands, the reaches of still water, the vast snow-fields, the distant peaks running up to eighteen thousand feet, the culmination of scenic grandeur in Lynn Canal, where nearly a score of glaciers hang on the mountains or touch the sea.

Europe has its own attractions of city, sea, and mountains. Africa and Asia are lands of brilliant costume and unfamiliar peoples. New experiences may be found also in Chicago and New Orleans, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Seattle, and Denver. In natural scenery "Seeing America First" means seeing many things which can nowhere else be found. Mount Rainier is finer than Mont Blanc; the Yosemite far surpasses the Engadine; Niagara has no rival this side of the Zambesi. In America the easy-going traveler may be wafted to the skies on flowery beds of ease, while the lover of nature and of camp life may plunge into any one of a hundred wildernesses. To "See America First" is to raise one's own standard of the might and majesty of our own beloved country.



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ON THE COLUMBIA RIVER HIGHWAY—LOWER CASCADE MOUNTAINS

WHAT IS A SURVEY?

HOW SPRINGFIELD, ILLINOIS, FOUND OUT

BY GRACE HUMPHREY

WHEN the general manager and directors of a factory realize that things aren't going as well as they might and their score is below one hundred per cent, they summon an efficiency expert to go over their plant from A to Z. This may be a task of weeks or months, for it involves a careful study of conditions in workrooms and office and selling force, of raw materials and finished product, of insurance and welfare work. Then comes his report, pointing out the weak spots, making definite suggestions for improvements, the next steps to be taken immediately and others to run over several years.

The same thing can be done for a community, which is only a factory of another kind, for its product is citizens ready to do their work in the world. Their one hundred per cent depends on schooling and public health and recreation and all the other things that go to make up living conditions in a town.

Reporting on a community is called a survey, and one has recently been made in this country that bids fair to become the standard. The place was Springfield, Illinois, in many ways a typical American city.

Typical, first of all, in size. There is only one New York, one Chicago; only eight cities to be compared with Pittsburgh's survey. But Springfield, with a population of nearly sixty thousand, has 196 cities in its class, with conditions fairly similar, with problems in common. For, after all allowance is made for this or that reason of race or geographical location or industry, living conditions vary with the size of your town.

Economically, Springfield has ties with many other places, for in contrast to Pittsburgh, a manufacturing city pure and simple, it has manufactures, plus mining, plus agriculture, plus trade.

Then it is a State capital, as are forty-seven other cities, where the business of public service brings into the community similar complexities and similar opportunities.

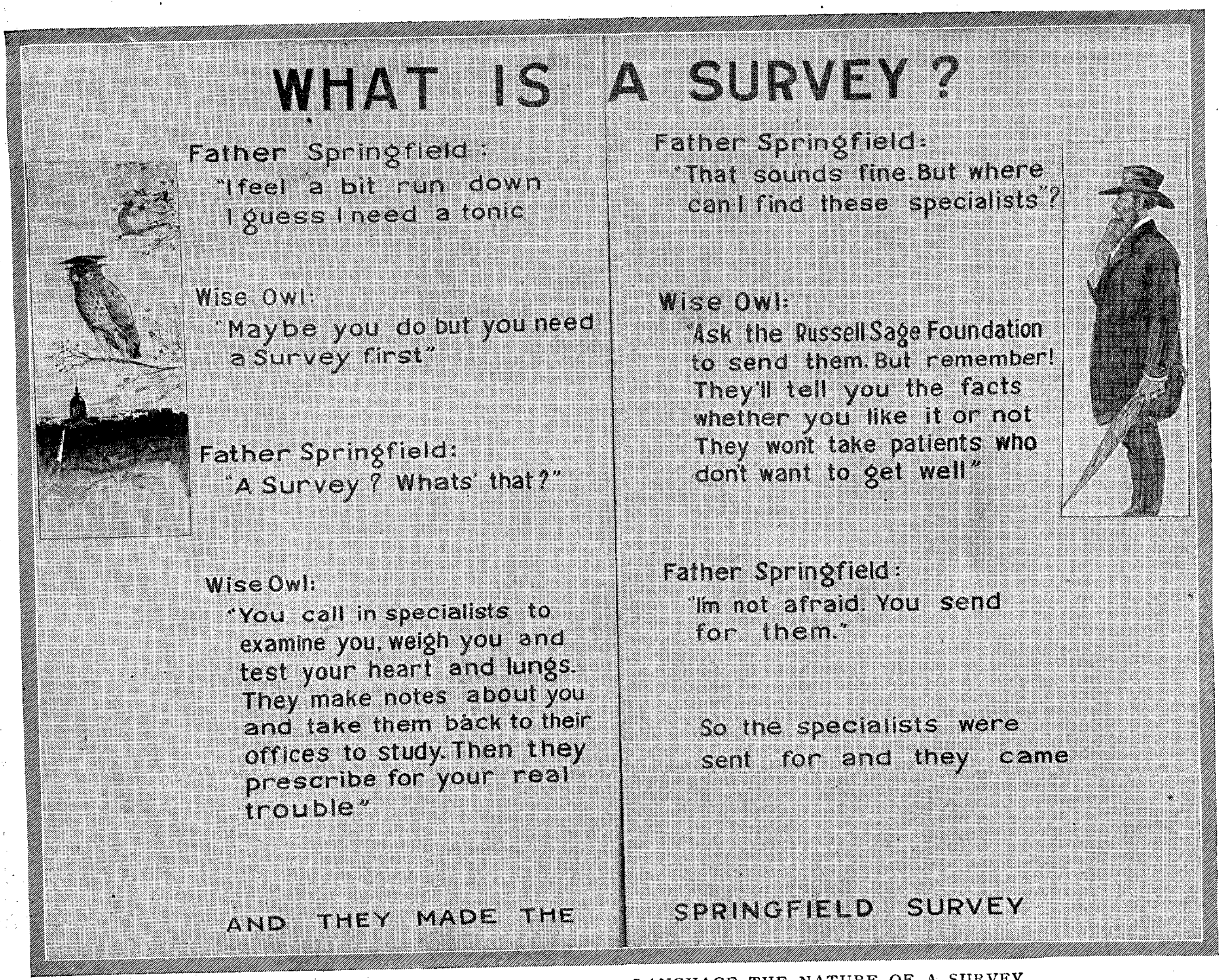
And, lastly, Springfield is a place of averages, not of extremes. About half-way between North and South, East and West, it has shared the spirit and the interests of every section. And its people are Americans and live in a city hallowed by the presence of Abraham Lincoln, whose memory and ideals are kept vividly before the casual visitor, the school-child, the workingman, the citizens of his home town.

Springfield wanted the survey. Various groups of forward-looking men and women had been giving some thought to social conditions in their city, were dissatisfied, and decided that the time was ripe for getting out of the maze of conflicting opinions on to a basis of facts, and getting there all together, in work for the community's progress. Forming a committee of twenty-five representative citizens, they put the planning and direction of the work into the hands of Mr. Shelby M. Harrison, head of the Department of Surveys and Exhibits in the Russell Sage Foundation.

But this was not a one-man job. Helping to collect and interpret the facts and recommend a community programme were six other departments of the Sage Foundation, together with five National and five Illinois organizations, all the social agencies of Springfield (no less than forty-seven in number), and over six hundred volunteer workers of the city. A community enterprise, truly—more so than any other survey that has been made.

It is impossible in so brief an article as this to tell the fascinating story of each of the nine lines of work studied—schools and recreation, housing and charities, public health, the administration of city and county, corrections and the care of mental defectives, industrial conditions—in its entirety a more complete community study than any previously attempted in America. But one story is more or less typical of the others, just as the time and money expended for one is an average for them all. So here only one of the reports is considered, the subject of greatest importance perhaps to the entire population of any city—its schools.

For education in Springfield is one of its big industries, though we seldom think of school and factory as being in the same class. But count all the children, the teachers, custodians, office forces, and Board of Education, and you have the amazing total of nearly twelve thousand persons, more than half the number engaged in all the industries of the



WHAT IS A SURVEY ?

Father Springfield:
"I feel a bit run down
I guess I need a tonic

Wise Owl:
"Maybe you do but you need
a Survey first"

Father Springfield:
"A Survey ? Whats' that ?"

Wise Owl:
"You call in specialists to
examine you, weigh you and
test your heart and lungs.
They make notes about you
and take them back to their
offices to study. Then they
prescribe for your real
trouble"

Father Springfield:
"That sounds fine. But where
can I find these specialists"?

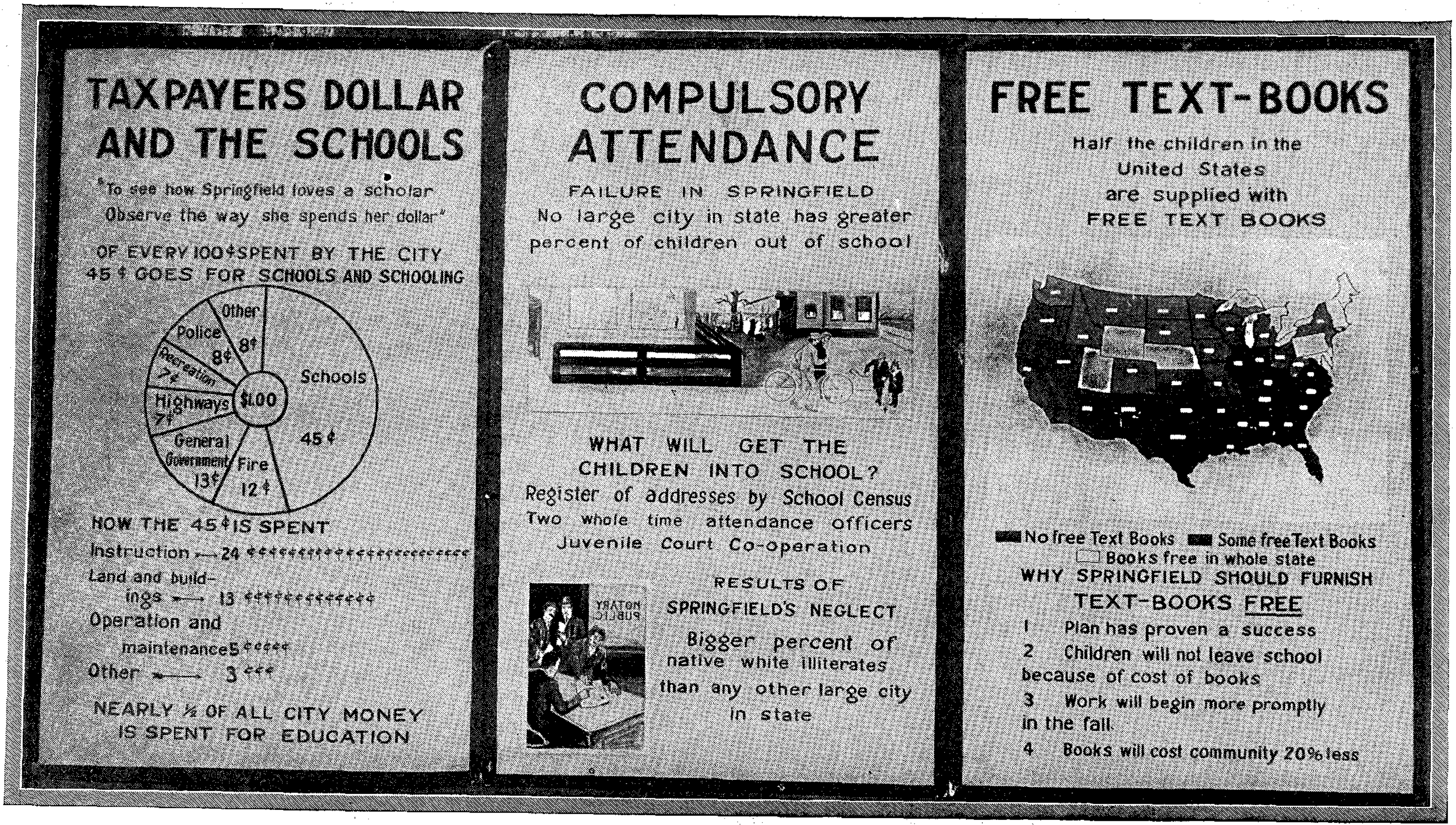
Wise Owl:
"Ask the Russell Sage Foundation
to send them. But remember!
They'll tell you the facts
whether you like it or not
They won't take patients who
don't want to get well"

Father Springfield:
"I'm not afraid. You send
for them."

So the specialists were
sent for and they came

AND THEY MADE THE SPRINGFIELD SURVEY

A POSTER THAT EXPLAINS IN FAMILIAR LANGUAGE THE NATURE OF A SURVEY



TAXPAYERS DOLLAR AND THE SCHOOLS

"To see how Springfield loves a scholar
Observe the way she spends her dollar"

OF EVERY 100¢ SPENT BY THE CITY 45¢ GOES FOR SCHOOLS AND SCHOOLING

HOW THE 45¢ IS SPENT

Instruction → 24 ¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢
Land and buildings → 13 ¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢¢
Operation and maintenance 5 ¢¢¢¢¢
Other → 3 ¢¢¢

NEARLY ½ OF ALL CITY MONEY IS SPENT FOR EDUCATION

COMPULSORY ATTENDANCE

FAILURE IN SPRINGFIELD
No large city in state has greater percent of children out of school

WHAT WILL GET THE CHILDREN INTO SCHOOL?
Register of addresses by School Census
Two whole time attendance officers
Juvenile Court Co-operation

RESULTS OF SPRINGFIELD'S NEGLECT
Bigger percent of native white illiterates than any other large city in state

FREE TEXT-BOOKS

Half the children in the United States are supplied with FREE TEXT BOOKS

■ No free Text Books ■ Some free Text Books
☐ Books free in whole state

WHY SPRINGFIELD SHOULD FURNISH TEXT-BOOKS FREE

1 Plan has proven a success
2 Children will not leave school because of cost of books
3 Work will begin more promptly in the fall.
4 Books will cost community 20% less

POSTERS TO MAKE SELF-SATISFIED CITIZENS THINK city. One out of every five persons in Springfield is directly concerned in education, to say nothing of parents and employers.

Indeed, the survey was in part a result of the community's interest in school questions, suddenly aroused when the last census put Springfield into the class of cities electing their board of education, the electorate in Illinois including both men and women. Elections were lively affairs, widely discussed and argued, with sometimes as many as forty-seven candidates, to choose seven serving without pay!

There were the most conflicting beliefs about the schools, some insisting that Springfield had every right to be proud of them, and they wouldn't hear of any hint to the contrary. Yes, if they'll hold their own in comparison with other cities; but do they? was the reply. One group pointed with self-satisfaction to the new buildings, for which so much money was being expended, while the next questioned if they were fully up to the highest modern standard of construction and equipment. And still others asked if perhaps the work in the schools ought not to be readjusted to the changed and changing new generation.

But every one felt that spending forty-five cents of every dollar of taxes was none too much if forty-five cents was coming back in education; for Springfield is proud, and for its children the best is none too good. In fact, said some, we pay for the best; are we getting it? Let us have a survey.

So in 1914 Dr. Leonard Ayres, with his five assistants, spent ten weeks on Springfield's schools, studying, comparing, interpreting, recommending. And his report, containing both diagnosis and prescription, was eagerly awaited by the entire community.

For the Board of Education he suggested a simplification of work. Meeting for several hours almost every week, each member serving on at least three committees, a large part of their time was given to petty details that should be looked after by superintendent and principals. They, not the Board, should discharge a janitor, decide about new geographies, transfer teachers, change ventilation and heating systems, buy supplies, make repairs, determine as to adjustable desks and how often to oil the floors, and all the thousand and one little things that are matters of school housekeeping or questions needing special professional knowledge.

More and more the Board should act, says the report, like the directors of a great corporation, putting authority on their general managers. This change was made almost at once, and the result in these two years has been all that was anticipated and more. Principals and superintendent accepted the extra responsibilities, and the time of the Board has been freed for big questions—bonds, new sites, building plans, extensions of the school system, needed legislation.

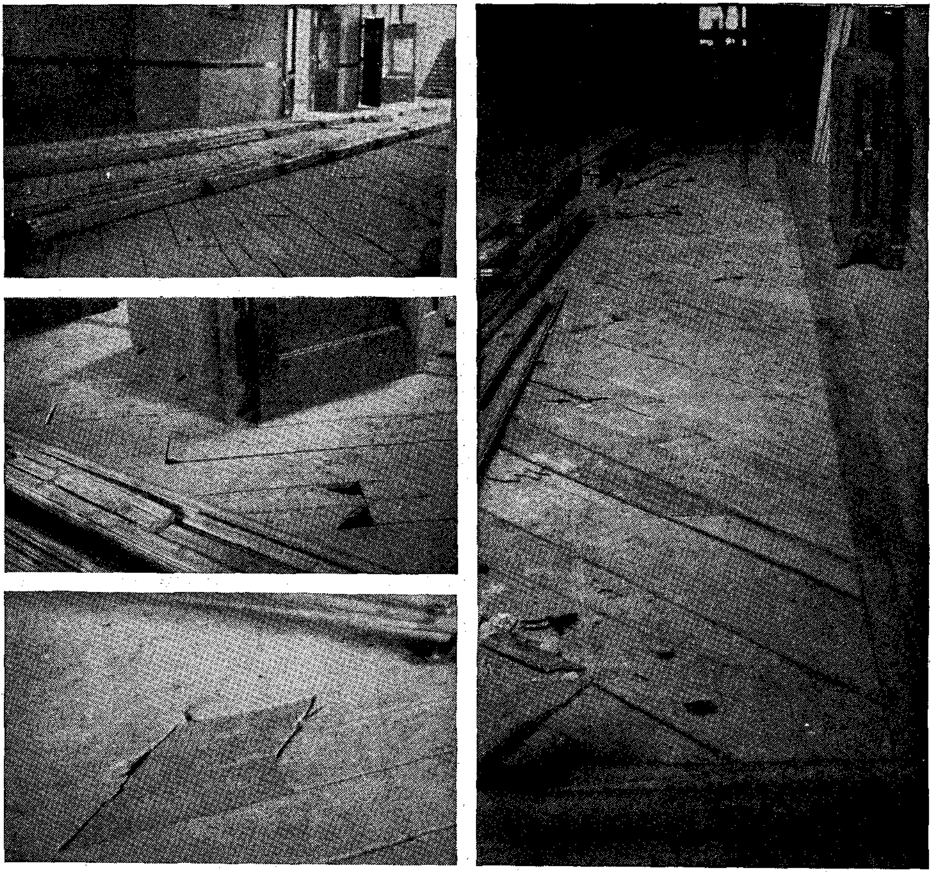
A change making little difference on the surface? Perhaps; but it has meant less work and worry, it has lessened the danger of petty politics and personal influence, it has greatly increased the efficiency of all concerned. And this is one instance in the survey where it takes an outsider to point out the underlying difficulty, suggest a remedy, and show how to carry it out.

As to the children, whether they were in school or not, there was nothing to judge by, at the time of the survey. Springfield pays for a school census every two years, but it gets one that fails to answer fundamental questions, though the city stands near the head of the list, in Illinois, for illiteracy. An efficient school census, says the report; and to insure attendance a trained truant officer with some social service experience.

The census has been replanned, and a trained woman is looking after the boys and girls who "play hooky." And not only are the working certificates for school-children now given under a new system, as the survey recommended, but there was all last summer an employment bureau managed by a committee of teachers; and here Springfield has gone one step beyond the report, which pleases no one more than the surveyors.

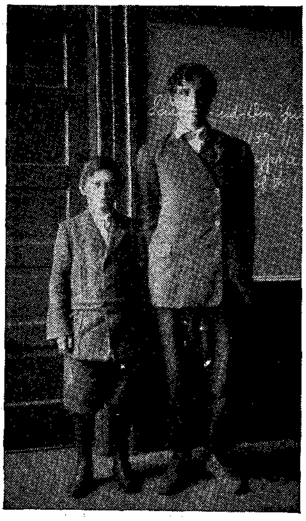
A special study was made of the misfit children—those over age, those extremely retarded, those who drop out of school the minute they are thirteen years old. In a list of thirty cities Springfield ranks above the average in its low percentage of these "specials;" but there are nevertheless a thousand of them, and for their care two special classes are to be started this winter, lessons for the most part individual.

To prevent the leaving school, which occurs much more among the boys than the girls, the surveyors looked into the course of study to find its weak spots. Much of it was behind the times, artificial, unrelated to the needs of real life. And, as proof of this, a most amusing section of the report tells how

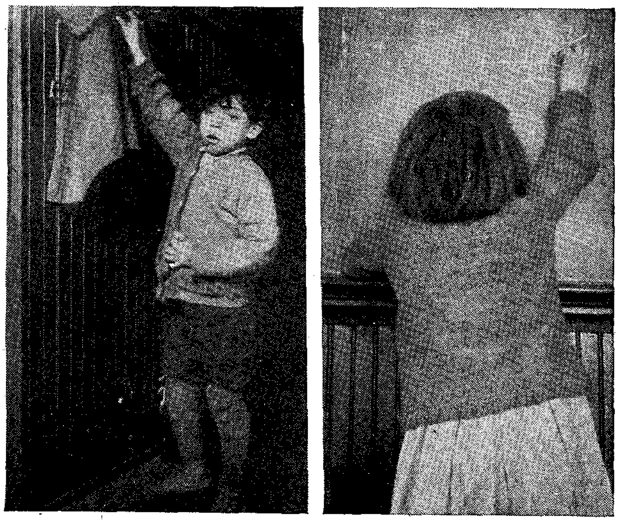


DEFECTIVE SECOND-HAND LUMBER USED IN A SCHOOL UNDER CONSTRUCTION IN SPRINGFIELD WHEN THE SURVEY WAS MADE

Badly drawn specifications and incompetent supervision give opportunity for dishonest contractors to palm off materials such as appear above



THESE TWO BOYS SIT IN SEATS OF THE SAME SIZE



THE COAT-HOOKS AND BLACKBOARDS ARE TOO HIGH FOR THESE SMALL CHILDREN

SOME DEFECTS IN SCHOOL EQUIPMENT

the experts prepared from their 684 class-room visits short examinations to see whether or not the upper grades were being taught what is actually used by able business men in Springfield. These tests in spelling, history, arithmetic, and geography were given to eleven of the most prominent and successful citizens. And the lamentable and laughable result of those examination papers has made over the course of study. For the marks showed between the work of the school and the work of the world little intimate relationship. This is changed now, and the course of study is being made—*being* made, not *was* made—not by the Board of Education, but at conferences joined in by all the teachers of a grade, principals, and superintendent. And this is true for grammar schools and high schools.

High schools? you ask. Does a city of sixty thousand have more than one? Springfield does now, thanks to the survey. And so enthusiastic was the community in putting into effect the recommendation for the junior high schools, so enthusiastic has been the response of pupils and teachers and parents, that it has been said that these schools alone are justification for the survey.

It has always been true in Springfield that the high school cost more per pupil, and for many less children, than the grammar schools. Instead of having eight and four-year systems, try the six-three-three plan, with intermediate groups, called junior high schools, of seventh, eighth, and ninth grade children, said the report. This gives a special kind of schooling for the difficult adolescent period, with a fine chance for vocational training for both boys and girls. And it is especially wise for Springfield now, when the high school is overcrowded. Ninth-grade children remain in school, in their own communities, and when the break does come, changing to the senior high, it is accompanied by no break in studies.

This worked like a charm in the three junior high schools organized in the city. One outlying district, generally sending one or two children to high school, graduated nineteen on a Friday at the end of January, and on Monday the whole nineteen turned up for high school work!

Regarding vocational training, Springfield's greatest need is for the boys, and this could be given in the junior and senior high schools, using for its material all the kinds of work involved in maintaining the school buildings—painting and carpentry and plumbing, electric wiring for lights and bells, steam-fitting, tinwork and masonry—vital and fascinating work because it is real, instead of formal and artificial exercises assigned in the school shops. It is an economical plan, using the $9,000 of manual-training salaries and the $22,000 for building maintenance, this fund having just now an ample margin.

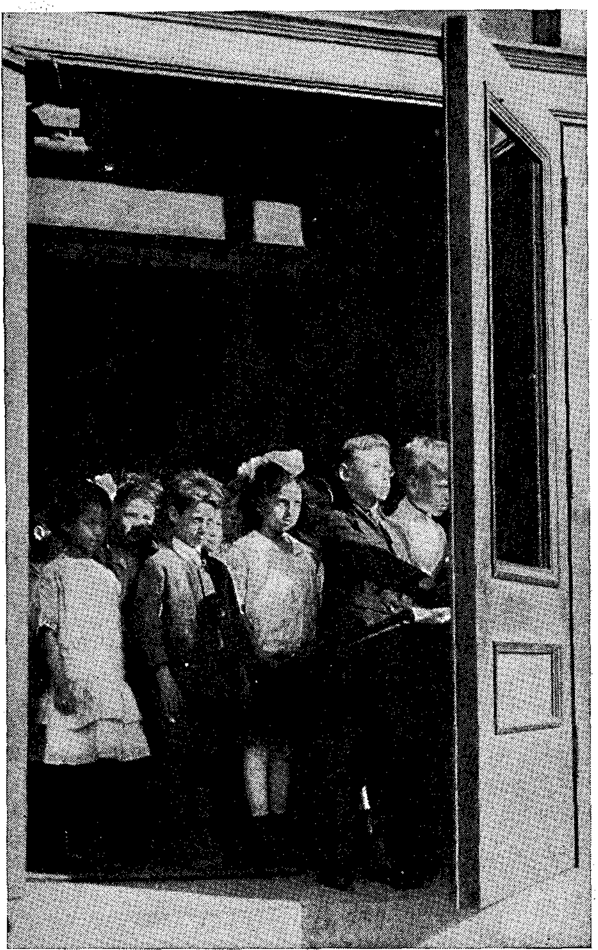
The plan fits in with manual training classes as at present organized, with part-time and continuation classes in the senior high school. If work in the school-buildings gives out, playgrounds and parks, hospitals, and children's institutions could furnish more. There are limitless possibilities!

But the plan has not been adopted. Perhaps it seemed too great a departure from the old system, to let a boy help the plumber during school hours and count it as school work. But manual training and domestic arts teachers are more than doubled in number since the survey, and perhaps unconsciously they are doing this very thing.

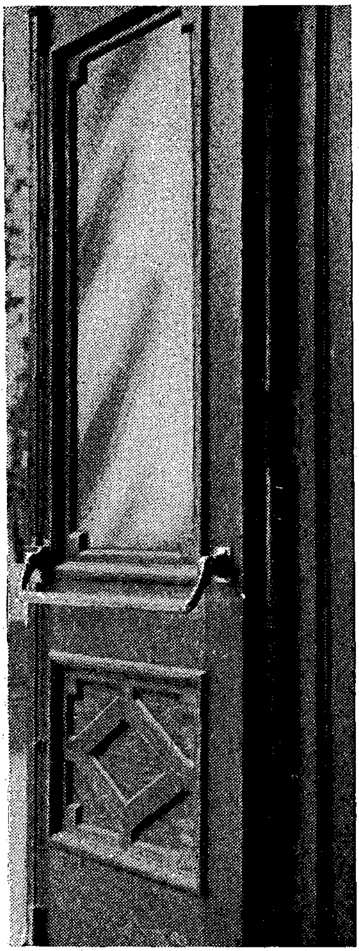
Last year one group of boys made boxes and chests of drawers for the baby welfare station and the nursery in their school. The girls made the curtains and kept them laundered. One class made steps for the auditorium platform, a ladder for the moving-picture booth, and the framework for the curtains over the semicircular windows. This last item proved the survey correct as to economy, for the curtains cost ten dollars less than the lowest estimate from a downtown store!

Another school made most of the apparatus for a playground that is one of the indirect results of the survey, and a good illustration of community action; for this summer of supervised play was financed by the Woman's Club, and carried on in a school-yard; the boys of the neighborhood did the work, and received in return a recommendation in both school and recreation reports.

In any factory it is the little leaks that spell inefficiency; and one of the valuable parts of the report are the many suggestions for little things which in the past meant waste, but may be easily corrected; such things as that the filing system in the main office is needlessly complex, that few towns spend so much for supplies, and recommending a businesslike way to remedy this and save money; that class-rooms and corridors and coat-rooms have waste space, with the result that Springfield's buildings are fifty per cent



AN ORDERLY FIRE DRILL, AS NOW CONDUCTED IN SPRINGFIELD'S SCHOOLS



THE "PANIC BOLT" WITH WHICH THE DOOR SHOWN IN ADJOINING PICTURE IS EQUIPPED

"SAFETY FIRST!"

larger than those of other cities for the same number of children.

It is a little thing, perhaps, to point out that coat-room hooks and blackboards and seats should have some reference to the size of the children using them; that there should be no running in fire drills; that all outside doors should have "panic bolts"—preventions of tragedy; that the lighting in class-rooms is below standard in amount; that just two rooms have windows at the left only, these same windows being washed twice a year in some schools, twenty times in others. But it is the little things that count in school housekeeping.

But, you ask, is there nothing found satisfactory in Springfield? Indeed, yes; scattered all through the report you will find emphatic indorsements and little pats of approval, on which parents and teachers and children and Board may justly pride themselves: classes averaging only thirty-six, and no part-timers; high promotion rates; friendly relations between pupils and teachers; discipline good; writing and spelling up to the average of other cities, though the arithmetic is done more rapidly and less accurately; efficient collection and accounting of funds; and Board members unsparingly generous in the time and attention they give, "their altruistic interest and personal self-sacrifice" being "splendid and valuable assets to the city."

But the surveyors did not go to Springfield with any idea of bestowing only approving nods, enlarging on the good points or work already well begun. So these statements are briefly put, and almost every one is followed by some little recommendation for still better results in the future. The school nurse is entirely competent and devoted to her work, but has more to do than one person can do thoroughly. Springfield needs three nurses and a half-time doctor; why not have a competent physician for this and the municipal work, as suggested in the public health report? The city has an extra nurse now.

Bubbling drinking fountains are a credit to Springfield, but place them in the corridors, not in the toilet-rooms, as in some schools. The generous grounds are another score in Springfield's favor; but unless they are used after school hours, Saturdays, and in the summer they are a costly investment lying idle. The surveyors would have been delighted to see the supervised play carried on in five schools last vacation.

And the buildings themselves should be used more. Well, in these two years the branch libraries have increased to eleven, all in schools, and five hundred books circulating in a month is a frequent occurrence. In one week last spring there were no less than seventy-five meetings held in the schools, and in not one was there any disorder—meetings for debates on municipal questions to be submitted to the voters, pre-election talks by the city commissioners, mothers' clubs, even elections! Aside from the economy, polling-places in school-houses have helped the community.

"If you could know what this district was like before!" said one principal. "They used to drive right up to the door with their carriages of voters, half of them drunk. But last election there was nothing like that, and I heard one fellow advise the others, 'None of your rough stuff here—our kids are having school upstairs!'"

But how, people frequently ask, is the expense of carrying out the survey recommendations to be met? Increased taxation? Impossible for Springfield, already taxed to the limit. A survey is all wrong if it tells only how to spend money—anybody can do that.

Here the cogs do not fit exactly; they can be made to fit. Try this. There oil is needed; spend money for your oil but make sure you have the right kind for this particular machine. And there is not, in the whole survey, one wild guess, one chimerical recommendation. On the contrary, there is a list of ten cities that have tested this plan and found it good and there is a list of States that have passed this law and tried it out.

Many of the school suggestions finance themselves, especially if you put two and two together. Springfield could balance the additional nurses against bookkeeper's and attorney's salaries, two offices to be abolished. You can secure a trained truant officer for no more wage than must be paid the policeman whose job it formerly was to round up truants. And one item could be met by adopting the suggestion that the county treasurer turn over each month the school funds collected, that the Board may have the interest on these balances. The building suggestions are, for the most part, minor in cost, but all-important in prevention and good housekeeping. Not increased funds, but increased diligence from building committee, architect, and parents' clubs, making impossible in the future waste space, badly drawn specifications, the paying of Springfield's good money for what was never obtained.

The new buildings cannot be charged to the survey, as they were all under way or planned before. But the junior high schools can, legitimately, for the high school is still overcrowded and more teachers are employed. But just as two neighboring towns may have an enormous disparity in tax rates, where one gives remarkable parks and free lectures and music and clean streets and good water, and the other none of these, but a man locates in the former because he gets his money's worth from his tax, so in Springfield the people are getting something for the junior highs, in that children go to high school who never went before, and children who dropped out are staying in school.

One of the things traceable to the survey, but not suggested by it directly, is the establishment of bank accounts for school-children. Begun by four banks, at the request of the Superintendent of Schools, 1,314 children (seventeen per cent of them all) now have accounts which last June totaled the sum of $38,156. The Commercial Association became interested, and has offered two cups, to be awarded twice each year, to the schools with the largest percentage of children depositing and the greatest percentage of increase.

Does it pay the banks? No; in not one is the extra clerical expense met by the extra interest on deposits. But wait a decade or two, till these youngsters now getting acquainted with the bank become investors and borrowers. "And this isn't wholly selfish," commented a bank president. "Children who failed to form the right habits at home, and the saving habit is one, used to be at a disadvantage all their lives. Now the community is trying to balance things up, to give the handicapped child a show. And in this savings habit the banks of Springfield are doing their share."

These are but a few of the tangible results that can be pointed out. But still more important are the intangible ones summed up in Springfield's new view of things. Not only is the taking of the next step made easier, but in those instances where the survey recommendations have been discussed and rejected or where to date nothing has been done the city finds it impossible to go back to the old standards, to have the old indifferent spirit about the community's work.

Perhaps Springfield hasn't a new conscience, for it must have been some vague stirrings of community conscience that made the survey wanted; but it has been aroused and stimulated. In the survey and its follow-up work Springfield has resolved that the community "shall have, under God, a new birth of freedom." And this not for themselves alone, but for the other Springfields, the twenty-six that share its name, and the one hundred and ninety-six that share its problems and opportunities.

THE STORY OF TAMINES

BY WILLIAM COOPER STEVENSON

IT was in the summer of 1910 that I first saw Tamines. Traveling from Charleroi to Namur by railway, we passed through a number of little towns, and Tamines must have been one of them. As a matter of fact, however, I did not remember it; for my only recollection of that ride through the valley of the river Sambre was a hazy one, slightly reminiscent of the less attractive environs of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania. Doubtless I casually opened my Baedeker, read the following elucidative passage, "Tamines (312 ft.), a small town with 2,500 inhabitants," and straightway forgot.

Five years later, in the summer of 1915, I again followed the windings of the Sambre. This time, however, I was in no such casual frame of mind. For I had heard that in the churchyard of Tamines was epitomized the whole tragedy of the invasion of Belgium.

Motoring from Namur by the Waterloo road, we passed field after field dotted with white wooden crosses. Some were inscribed, "Two Belgian soldiers who died for their country;" others, perhaps, "Eight German soldiers who died fighting for the Fatherland." All the way were these quiet reminders of that relentless gray flood which had swept over the region the year before.

We entered Tamines from the northwest. At first view the little town seemed undamaged. We turned into the main street and passed the Hôtel de Ville; still, to my surprise, not a scar, not a "souvenir of August, 1914," could be seen. At the sharp turn to the railway crossing three soldiers barred the road; one stood at attention with bayonet fixed, one waved a red flag, and one held aloft a signboard with the definite instruction, "Halt."

For the eleventh time that day I produced my passport. And after the ancient bearer of the red flag had read and re-read it carefully and pointed out several of its paragraphs to his friend of the signboard, they both muttered, "*Gut*," and we were allowed to pass.

Then, as we made the turn, a panorama of Pompeian desolation was suddenly unfolded before our eyes. The half of Tamines on the south side of the railway was in ruins. Across the tottering walls and fallen wreckage we could see the church and two houses near it still standing; but they were the only buildings which had been spared.

Henri, the Belgian chauffeur, stopped the car, and we gazed in silence. Finally he spoke: "The Germans burned two hundred and sixty-four houses here. You see, monsieur, "*C'est bien arrangé, n'est ce pas?*"

"It is well arranged"—that is the customary expression among the Belgians for an occasion like this. I have heard it uttered in exactly the same tones on the heights above Dinant, at the station of Spontin, and on the steps of the Hôtel de Ville at Louvain.

Presently we drove slowly through the main street, piled on each side with débris. At the second corner Henri pointed out a particularly desolate ruin. "In other times," he explained, "that was the café where one could find the good Burgundy; then, with a characteristic shrug of his shoulders: "*Quelle affaire, monsieur, quelle affaire!*"

And so we came to the churchyard of Tamines.

"You may enter," said Henri; "and in there you will find the graves of three hundred and fifty of the four hundred and eighteen peasants who were executed by the Germans on the evening of the 22d of August a year ago."

Going in, I walked to the north side of the church. All at once I stopped, rooted to the spot.

Before me was the saddest sight I have seen in Belgium. In a space of only about sixty by six feet were over two hundred rude wooden crosses, each with the name of a Belgian upon it, each with the inscription: "22 *Août*, 1914."

On the other side of the church was a smaller plot with one hundred and fifty more crosses, each bearing the same date.

Some of them were tall, some short; all were so crowded together that they appeared to lean upon one another for support.

The scene of the execution was close by—a large open common with the river Sambre flowing along the far side, and a high brick wall, its surface battered and bullet-marked, standing at one end and extending from the churchyard to the river bank.

This afternoon two little girls were playing with dolls in front of the brick wall, and a man of about thirty-five or forty years was watching them listlessly.

"That is Paul ——," said Henri, pointing to the man. "He will give you better than I an account of what happened here, because he is one of the Taminois who were present when the Germans came."

Walking over, I made friends with the little girls, while Henri explained to their father that I would be interested in his story. And so our conversation began.

"Yes, monsieur, the little girls were here a year ago too, and their grandfather is buried in the churchyard with the others who were shot that terrible evening. You may see his cross in there; it is marked '*Age de 76 ans*,' and, like the others, '*22 Août, 1914*.'

"But, since you wish it and you are not a German, I will tell you all the story.

"Just one year ago we were very happy in Tamines. My wife, the little girls, and I lived in a small house by the railway, and I worked every day in the mill of Grogneaux, at Auvelais. In the evenings we would go to the café, and sometimes there would be the cinema in the square.

"It was just after my older girl's first communion that the war came. At first we did not believe it could be true; then refugees brought the news of the terrible things which had happened at Vise, and we began to realize.

"My friends in the Garde Civique were mobilized and ordered to Namur. Our mill was closed. I stayed at home and at the café, for no one worked in those days.

"Then, far away in the distance, like thunder, came the booming of the great guns of Liège. Ah, that defense of Liège! And every day we heard that the English had come; that they had been seen going through Nivelles or Gembloux *en route* for Liège. Then the report would say that, though they had not come yet, they were on their way. '*Les Anglais viennent*,' that was our hope and our prayer.

"But still the English did not come.

"Ah, those days of rumor and excitement! Our Belgian troops were moving, trains were rushing through. We knew not what to think nor what to do. And all the while could be heard that distant, ominous rumbling from Liège.

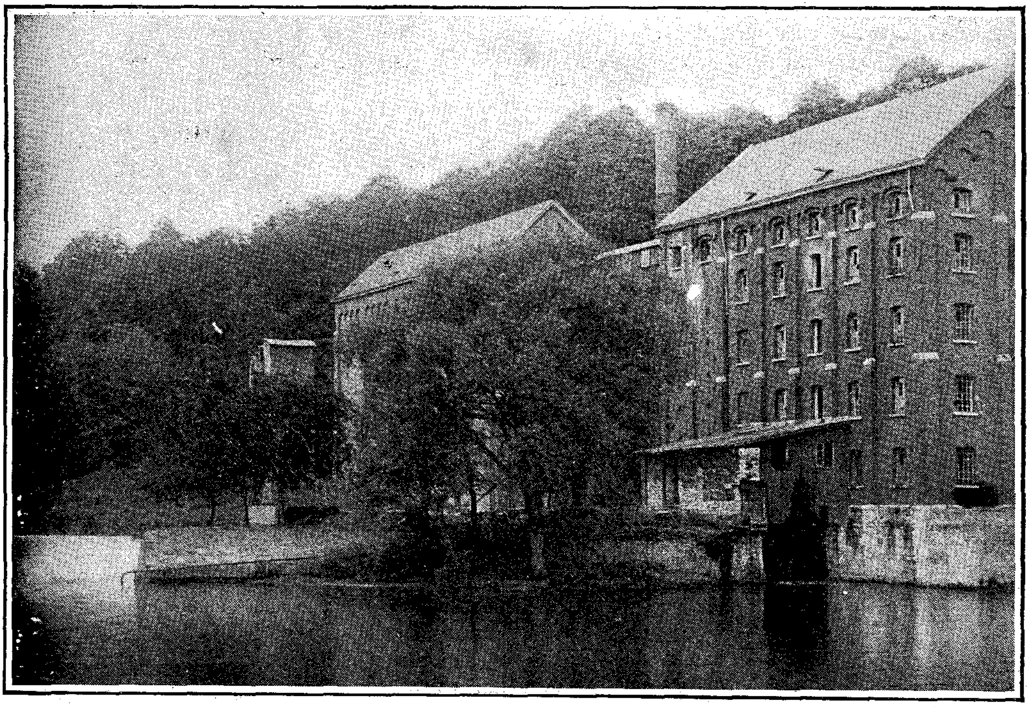
"Then on Sunday evening—I think it was the 16th; yes, just six days before the 22d—when we were all at the café, Pierre came among us, and told what had happened at Jemeppe.

"A cavalry patrol in strange uniforms had ridden down the road from Moustier, and the villagers thought that the English had come at last. Great was their enthusiasm. Rushing from the houses they shouted, '*Vive l'Angleterre! Vive les Anglais!*'

"But what a surprise was theirs. The riders turned angrily in their saddles, growling, '*Taisez-fous!*' and muttering in guttural tones. Some one cried, 'The Germans!' And, *sacré*, it was—a patrol of Uhlans.

"They galloped through the street, and were about to turn away by the road towards Onoz when some imbecile of a villager—

PAUL'S HOME AT TAMINES
"My wife, my little girls, and I lived in a small house by the railway"



THE MILL OF GROGNEAUX AT AUVELAIS
I worked every day at the mill of Grogneaux, at Auvelais"

there were always those imbeciles—shot his rifle from a window. Immediately the Uhlans returned, firing their revolvers and threatening with their spears. One threw a fusee into the house from which he thought the shot had come, and then they rode away.

"Pierre was the first to tell us the news; later many more from his village appeared to stay with us at Tamines, fearful lest the Uhlans return for severer vengeance.

"For some time we quartered a party of the Garde Civique of Charleroi; and then on the Monday morning before the 22d our first French soldiers appeared. They looked very brave as they marched in singing the 'Sambre et Meuse.' We gave one of their officers the best room in our little house. And I remember we had a happy evening at the café.

"More French soldiers came on Tuesday and Wednesday. And all the while rumors were bringing the main forces of the Germans nearer. At night there was the glow of distant fires in the sky.

"Most of the refugees whom we saw went on towards Charleroi and France, so great was their terror. And some of our neighbors went with them. But we remained, feeling safe with the soldiers to protect us.

"Then on Thursday another small company of Uhlans rode into Velaine, the little village just four miles north of here. Some of our French soldiers were there, and drove them off, after killing and wounding a few. The Velanois came over to tell us about it, crying, '*Vive la France!*' We were so much pleased. But it was on that day that we heard the first of the heavy gun-firing at Namur.

"On Friday the rumbling of those guns was tremendous. And we heard that the Germans were quite around us, at Charleroi as well as at Ligny and Dinant. Then for the first time the feeling which I have had ever since took hold of me—the feeling of the hopelessness of trying to combat the purpose of the Germans. You remark it now, do you not, monsieur? Think how we felt as the enemy poured over our country! We wished to flee, and yet we knew not what to do; we were dazed.

"On that Friday morning, the 21st, we knew the Germans were very near—no longer in wandering bands of Uhlans, but now in powerful forces. They entered Alloux, just over yonder, and made most of the inhabitants prisoners. Only a few escaped to tell us the news.

"Then our French officers made ready for defense. They ordered all inhabitants who lived on the northwestern side of the railway, in the half of Tamines which you see still standing undestroyed, to cross over into this side, telling them that the Germans were going to be wiped out as they entered the village.

"But when late in the afternoon the German infantry did come marching up the Auvelais road, the French retreated quickly across the railway to this side without fighting at all. We saw them coming. We were watching from the lower window of my house. Two or three of the Frenchmen rushed in the door, and I sent my wife and the little girls into the cellar. They begged me to come too, but I stayed with the soldiers.

"One of these men had hurt his hand, and he gave me his rifle. I was mad, you may well believe, and I shot with the others from the upstairs windows. Wherever we saw the Germans in the distance, or wherever we thought they were, we fired. But I do not think we hit any one, we shot so wildly.

"The streets were disordered with excited soldiers and frightened civilians; the rattle of bullets and the ugly tapping of the mitrailleuses filled the air.

"Presently the order was given for the French to evacuate the village. And then they did a thing which I can never forgive—they forbade us civilians to leave with them. Perhaps they felt that we would not be able to keep up with their retreat, and so would be safer here; but think, monsieur, they fled over the Sambre bridge and up the hill along the Fosses road, and left us to those oncoming beasts. We never saw them again; and would to the *bon Dieu* they had never come to our village.

"The Germans did not cross over the railway immediately, as they could not be sure of the French retreat, and doubtless feared an ambuscade. But as soon as more of their divisions had approached and had been drawn up before the Hôtel de Ville they charged. Up over the railway embankment and around the station they came, shooting and making their horrible guttural noises. I fired just once the gun which had been left me, and then flung it from the window and fled to the cellar.

"There my wife and the little ones huddled together, while outside was disorder terrible.

We heard some one burst in our front door, and then the sound of trampling feet and crashing glass overhead. After several moments the cellar door opened; but no one appeared on the threshold. I think the Germans were afraid of the shot which might have met them. But one cried in his own language something which I could not understand, and then in execrable French something more which I could understand no better. Finally the door slammed again.

"We held our breaths, though it was not necessary, and crouched closer among the wine bottles. How long we stayed in the cellar I do not know. But suddenly my wife remarked the crackling sound of flames. 'They have fired the house,' she cried. It was true. In an instant the sound became unmistakable, and I knew that we must go forth or be caught like rats in a trap.

"For a moment we hesitated, thinking that perhaps it would be better to die than to go out. But one clings to life, monsieur; we could not stay. Besides, we had taken a little wine, which gave us spirit.

"Carrying the smaller girl, I climbed the stairway from the cellar; the others followed close behind me. Then, drawing a long breath, I opened the door, and we ran through the smoke out into the street. Immediately two soldiers seized us, but not roughly, and pushed us along toward the village common. We had not gone far before we met other groups of neighbors almost paralyzed with fear, all being driven the same way. Everywhere were burning houses.

"On the common—where we are now, monsieur—we found many more of the inhabitants, who had been herded there like sheep. They were of all ages, from the little ones like my girls to old men like their grandfather. He was dazed with terror, hardly knowing what he was doing. We kept him with us.

"As it grew dark—or rather as the twilight faded, for there was little darkness that night, with all the blazing fires—we were driven into the church.

"There were about fifteen hundred of us in the church; but not all the neighbors who must have been in the village when the Germans entered. Some of them had escaped. But some others, alas! had been too terrified to leave their cellars, and so had been trapped in the flames.

"What a night! No one was allowed to leave the church; no food was given us; but hunger was not thought of except by the children. Flashes from our burning homes flickered through the windows, casting shadows upon the walls and a strange light upon the frightened faces. But I think what made it seem most like a horrible dream, what I hated most of all, was the singing of the soldiers on the common outside.

"There is a German song—you have heard it perhaps—I have been told it is called '*Kleine Mädchen müssen schlafen gehn.*' I cannot forget that song. To me it was more terrible than the shooting and flames. Sometimes the sentinels sing it now, and I shudder.

"But I cannot describe that night. My wife, the little ones, my father-in-law, and I clung to one another near the altar. And we dared not hope for morning, not knowing what it would bring.

"When the sun rose at last, however, there was a strange quiet—that is, a quiet in comparison with the noise infernal of the night. But from the main road and the bridge came the constant tramp of troops and roll of munition wagons, while still in the distance could be heard the booming of the heavy guns at Namur.

"Morning wore on, and nothing happened to us. The children cried for food and were given a little by some of the guards, who did not look unkind men, monsieur, for all they did. But none of the rest of us thought of hunger. Noon came; and still no one was allowed to leave the church. The suspense was very hard to bear. By this time many of the women and older men had become so weak and exhausted that they lay upon the chairs and floor almost unconscious. And during the afternoon more and more fainted.

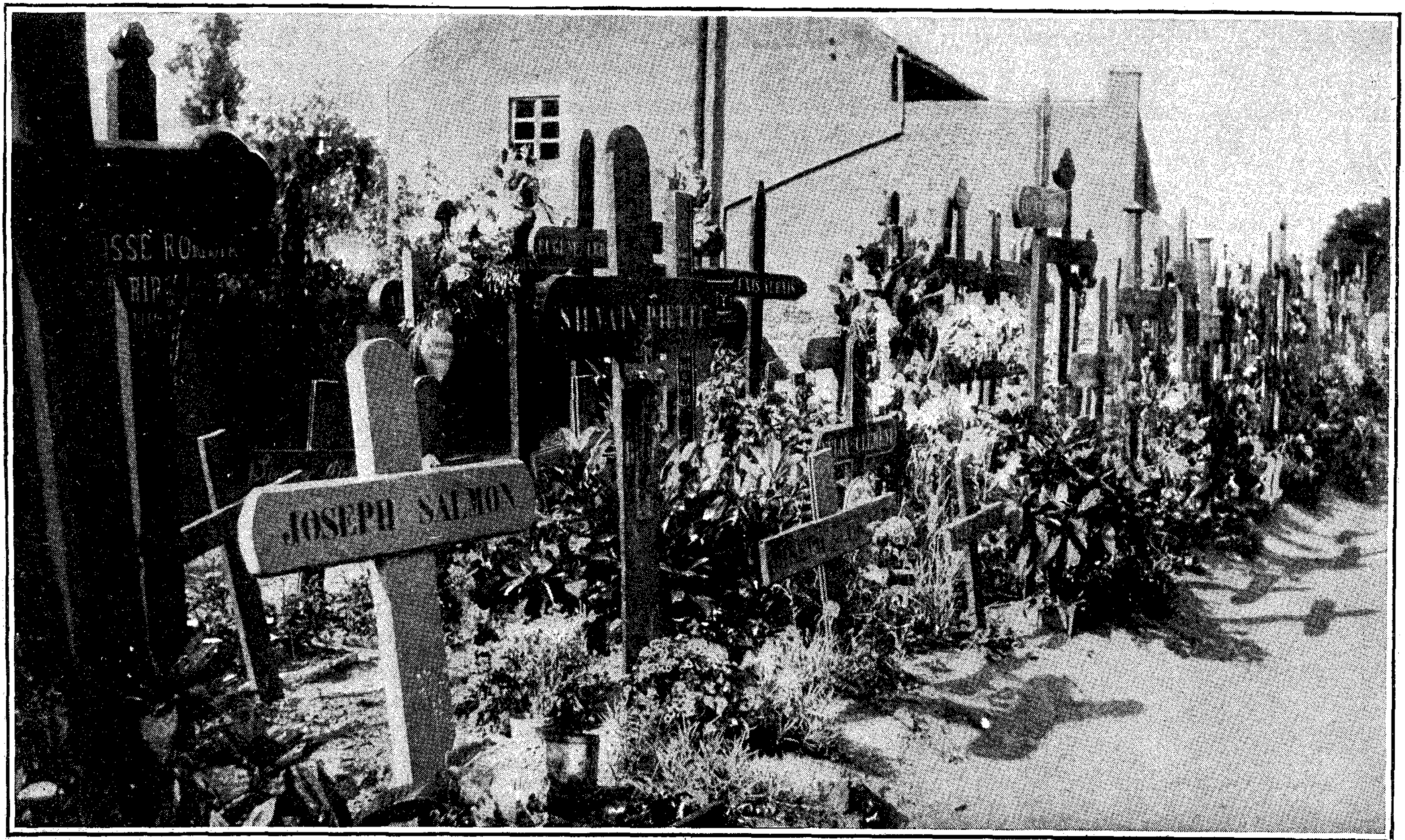
"And so we passed that long night and that long day.

"At six in the evening an officer suddenly appeared in the doorway and spoke in German some words which I could not understand. And then in French he ordered all Belgian men to come forth into the common.

"What a wail of despair! To be taken from our dear ones—you cannot imagine the horror! We cling to one another. We cannot move for fear.

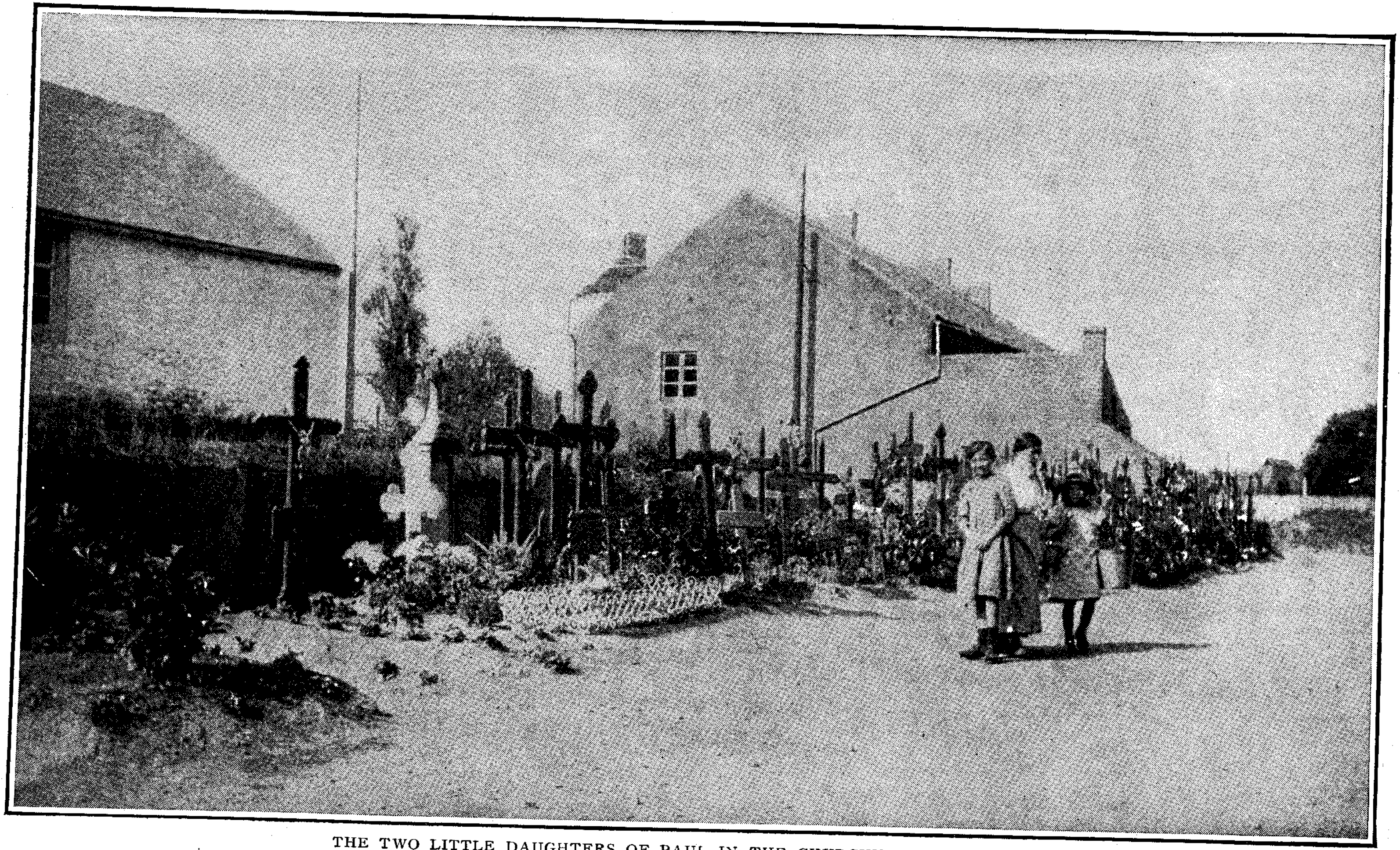
"Immediately the soldiers begin to drag out the men. They tear them from their wives and children. What farewells! Many of the Germans themselves are sobbing like the infants.

"All at once I am wrenched from my


JOSEPH SALMON
SILVAIN PIETTE

THE CHURCHYARD OF TAMINES—"THE SADDEST SIGHT I HAVE SEEN IN BELGIUM"

In the center of this photograph is the cross in memory of the little girls' grandfather. It is behind the cross of "Silvain Piette," and under the word "Piette" may be distinguished the inscription "Age de 76 ans"



THE TWO LITTLE DAUGHTERS OF PAUL IN THE CHURCHYARD OF TAMINES
“And their grandfather is buried in the churchyard with the others who were shot that terrible evening”

wife's arms. My old father-in-law is seized at the same moment. We are pushed and carried through the church and out into the common.

"And here, in full view of the church windows, we are herded, right along this wall to the river bank yonder. We are almost six hundred. Some are very young men, others almost as old as my father-in-law.

"That it is awful you may well believe. One of my neighbors has an apoplectic fit. Many keep falling to the ground, only to be forced to their feet again by the relentless guards. A few, crazed, plunge into the river and attempt to escape; but they are shot immediately. The rest of us are paralyzed with terror.

"And from the windows of the church our wives and children look down upon it all.

"Then as we falter here a platoon of soldiers is lined up across the middle of the common and faced toward us. An officer walks into the open space between and shouts a few words. I cannot understand. I cannot think.

"He steps back. He blows his whistle. There is a crash—and a heavy blow shatters my knee. I fall to the ground in the midst of bodies of my comrades. But I am still alive.

"As in a dream I hear the officer shrieking: '*Lefez-fous! Lefez-fous!*' I try to rise; but I cannot for my knee. Many do, however, thinking the execution is over.

"Again the officer blows his whistle. Once more there is a crash. And then no one is left standing; there is but a great mass of dead and wounded.

"I lie quite still, pretending I am dead. Against me and about me are the bodies of my comrades.

"But all is not yet over. Suddenly there comes the horrible rat-tapping of a mitrailleuse. Once more I feel a heavy blow, this time on my hip. But it does not give me so much pain as my knee. At last the firing ceases.

"The women, who saw everything from the windows of the church, have told me that after the second volley had been fired upon us by the platoon the officer still was not satisfied. Furiously he ordered over a mitrailleuse from a company which was crossing the bridge at the time. Many of the soldiers, overcome with grief, expostulated; but in vain. He forced the gunners to place their tripod by that stone in the corner of the grass there. And then, monsieur, the mitrailleuse was played back and forth over the mass of dead and wounded.

"All the long night I lay with the dead comrades around me. Some of the wounded who were near the river slipped quietly into the water and tried to escape by swimming. A few succeeded; but more were drowned or else shot by the sentinels. Many bodies were afterwards found in the water.

"You would think I would have gone mad as I lay there; but I did not. I suffered from my wounds. I lost consciousness from time to time. I thought very much of my wife and little girls, whom I had left in the church.

"Morning came, and still the guards watched us and would allow no one to approach. It was not till afternoon that German stretcher-bearers came in among us. They picked out those of us who were still alive. I fainted once more. When I revived, I was comfortable and well bandaged, in a house across the railway.

"And now, if you please, explain this for me: The Germans had taken me there. They had bandaged me carefully. They had told the women where to find me. The Germans who had shot me had done this. I cannot understand it. What an affair!

"*Voilà tout, monsieur.*"

A few minutes later Henri and I were motoring over the Sambre bridge and along the same route which the French had followed in their retreat of a year before. For about a mile the road climbed upward, a long, hard pull. We reached the summit near a small vine-clad café.

Henri stopped the car and shut off the motor. Looking back, we could see the little town below us, church and churchyard and open common standing out among the ruins. Paul was still tarrying by the brick wall; the children were still playing.

"Listen, monsieur," said Henri.

The wind was blowing gently from the west. Suddenly there came a faint rumbling in the air like very distant thunder. Ominously it continued. And then I knew what it was—the sound of the heavy guns about Arras, over one hundred miles away.

LA PATRIE

BY LAWRENCE BINYON

Through storm-blown gloom the subtle light persists;
Shapes of tumultuous, ghostly cloud appear,
Trailing a dark shower from hill-drenching mists:
The grandeur of the desolate dawn is here.

But ere the wayside trees show leaf and form
Invisible larks in all the air around
Ripple their songs up through the gloom and storm,
As if the balked light had won wings of sound!

A wounded soldier on his stretcher waits
His turn for the ambulance, by the glimmering rails.
He is wrapped in a rough brown blanket, like his mates.
Over him the dawn broadens, the cloud pales.

Muscular, swart, bearded, and quite still,
He lies, too tired to think, to wonder. Drops
From a leaf fall by him. For spent nerve and will
The world of shattering and stunned effort stops.

He feels the air, song-thrilled and fresh and dim,
And close about him smells the rainy soil.
It is ever-living Earth recovers him,
Friend and companion of old, fruitful toil.

He is patient with her patience. Hurt, he takes
Strength from her rooted, still tenacities.
The will to heal, that secretly remakes,
Like slumber, holds his dark, contented eyes.

For she—though, never reckoning of the cost,
Germens of all profusion she prepares—
Knows tragic hours, too, parching famine, frost
And wreck; and in her children's hurt she shares.

Build what we may, house us in lofty mind's
Palaces, wean the fine-wrought spirit apart,
Earth touches where the fiber throbs, and winds
The threads about us of her infinite heart.

And some dear ground with its own changing sky,
As if it were our feeling flesh, is wrought
Into the very body's dignity
And private color of least conscious thought.

Oh, when that loud invader burned and bruised
This ordered land's old kindness, with brute blows
Shamed and befouled and plundered and abused,
Was it not Earth that in her soldier rose

And armed him, terrible and simple? He
Takes his wound, mute as Earth is, yet as strong.—
The funeral clouds trail, wet wind shakes the tree,
But all the wild air of the dawn is song.

THE STORY OF ANNIE

BY EMILY WAYLAND DINWIDDIE

ANNIE, a little lonely, frightened girl whose parents have died, and who is left not knowing exactly what has happened to her, is brought by a friend of the family to an orphanage of the old type, in some community where ancient habits are undisturbed. Her curls, the pride of her mother's heart, are shaved off. One of the ugly, characterless, humiliating costumes of the orphanage is given her. Her only crimes are poverty and the loss of her father and mother, but the effect of the dress upon her soul is much the same as that of prison stripes upon the convict. She feels branded and set apart from other little girls who have homes spelled with a little "h" and have mothers who love them and give them pretty hair ribbons.

Annie goes to bed at night in a dormitory, first in the quarantine house, later in the main building. Nobody tucks her in. Nobody kisses her good-night. She wonders where her brother is. She does not know that he has been taken by an aunt in a distant State and that she will never see him again.

In the morning at breakfast she, with the other children, gabbles over a—to her—meaningless grace. She goes into the chapel and sits on one of the seats, which are all of uniform height. Her little feet dangle in the air. Her strained muscles soon tire, and she begins to wriggle restlessly, and brings down reproof upon herself. She sniffs a little, but is too frightened to cry openly. None of the grown-up service conducted in the chapel makes any impression on her.

All day long she goes in and out of dining-room, chapel, class-room, wash-room, dormitory, play-room, all to the sound of a bell and all with a crowd of other children.

In the dining-room the children do not behave as her mother taught her to, even though her mother's standards were not of the highest. They gobble their food at lightning speed. They slop it over the table. Annie's wide, wondering eyes see that one little girl opposite her has mashed potato on her arms all the way to the elbow. The meal passes with loud sounds of gurgitation of liquid food and drink, but no word of conversation beyond surreptitious whispers. To avoid a deafening roar of noise in the huge, congregate dining-room the powers that be forbid talking at the table.

Annie has tasks to do—routine tasks, part of a system which she does not understand. She has play hours, too. Sometimes she passes them in a play-room which is pandemonium itself. The casual visitor fears to have her ear-drums broken by the noise of the great crowd of children in the one confined room; but as soon as the visitor's presence is noted deathly silence prevails—the children are on their company behavior. Such toys as are provided are totally insufficient in number and ill chosen. Sometimes Annie plays out of doors, on a cinder playground, to save the grass of the grounds, and only within fixed, narrow limits. Going out of bounds is severely punished.

Annie stays at the orphanage till she is fifteen. She is backward in school education. She has nothing she could call her own. She has forgotten the meaning of personal possessions—her own dolls, her own trinkets, her own dresses and ribbons. She has forgotten how to think. She can only do routine work under direction at stated times. She has not had a surprise nor an adventure nor met an emergency since babyhood. She has never had money and has no appreciation of its value. She knows nothing of earning, spending, saving, or giving away. Religion with her is as mechanical as the multiplication table—something associated with a hurried gabbling in unison with other children, and with talk by grown people which she does not understand.

She is a pale, undersized, dyspeptic child. She sticks her stomach out and holds her chest in. She is near-sighted and has spinal curvature and incipient flat-foot. None of these defects has been properly treated. She has never taken a walk. She has only marched in line. She is a dull little thing. Initiative and enterprise she knows not of. She has never even gone alone on an errand outside the grounds.

But at fifteen—presto! change! she is grown up and must shift for herself. The orphanage places her with a woman who offers to take her and produces references to show her respectability. The woman has a family of her own and keeps boarders.

The shock to Annie of encountering the outside world is terrific. She does not know how to adjust herself. She wishes she were back in the orphanage. The work is hard. Her feet ache, her back aches. She does not know that she is overworked and underpaid and that she ought to have medical treatment. She makes blunders innumerable and irritates her employer. The employer turns her out and she stumbles into another place, where she is again exploited. Finally she becomes seriously ill and goes to a hospital, where she has to have an operation. A hospital social service worker finds that Annie needs a long period of rest. She tries to get into touch with Annie's relatives to learn whether they can take care of her for a while. But no human being knows who or where they are. Annie remembers that she had an Aunt Bess and a brother Buddie. The orphanage records show only the date of Annie's admission and that she was a full orphan, Protestant, and the name, but not the address, of the neighbor who brought her. All else is lost in oblivion. She does not know that her Aunt Bess became ill and died soon after taking Buddie, whose real name is Edward, also unknown to her. She has not heard that he was cared for by friends, and has grown up to be a fine fellow who often wonders what became of his little sister. She has no inkling of the fact that one of her uncles has become a wealthy man and would gladly help her if he knew of her existence.

Annie's story is commonplace. I have purposely not taken anything unusual.

Now what would happen to the child in the newer type of work? Suppose she went to a modern institution, perhaps to the Leake and Watts Orphan House, of New York City, which I may take as an example, since it is the one I know best.

The doctor will see Annie for preliminary examination, then for two weeks of special observation in the reception cottage, and at least once a month afterward. She must not bring contagion into the home, nor must troublesome adenoids or tonsils or broken arches or other physical defects be allowed to injure her health and prevent proper development. The dentist has his part, too, in Annie's first physical overhauling and subsequent regular care. Specialists may need to be consulted. This sounds expensive, but the economic saving to the community in the long run is enormous, as any one who has seen the progress of Annie and her like will know. The making straight of the crooked, the transforming of weak, snuffling, stupid children, sometimes half blind, into wholesome, rollicking youngsters with a useful future before them, are miracles of every-day life in a modern orphanage.

The orphan house workers become acquainted with Annie's relatives and friends in order to preserve for her warm human ties and helpful interest, and to learn Annie's early history and heredity and her special dangers from these.

At the orphanage Annie's homesick soul is cheered by a housemother genuinely fond of children, as are all the staff, who makes her welcome in a reception cottage by the river. Here the housemother and the other children show her the pets—the bantam chickens, the pigeons, and the big black rabbit named after a member of the Board of Management. They bring out games and toys. They point out the endless pageant of the river—the big and little boats, what they are and what they do. Soon Annie is frolicking about with her new playmates on the grass under the trees of the big grounds. She sees that the other children are happy, and joy is contagious. The terrified boy who, when he came in, expected to get a beating every time he made a mistake has become as care-free as a child of his age should be. The little boy with a trick of throwing his arm before his face whenever any one spoke to him suddenly has lost the habit entirely. The younger children at night in their white beds ask and receive good-night kisses from their caretakers. And they come to them at other times with the stories of their day's doings, and with their childish questions about the ways of the universe in general and their little lives in particular.

Annie has simple, inexpensive clothes, which are nevertheless individual. She does not feel ashamed when she goes out.

In the dining-room she is taught not to bolt her food, laying a foundation for future dyspepsia, and not to neglect manners. She sits at a small table in family style, where natural conversation goes on, and the furnishings, though plain, are homelike and attractive. Her diet is suited to her. The younger children have different food from the older ones, and the underweights are given special attention.

Annie has an outlet for her natural energy in work, study, and play adapted to her strength and mentality, both of which are tested by modern methods with scientific apparatus. Her work is not mechanical. The aim is not merely to form habits of industry, though these are important, since she must early earn her bread; but to give her intelligent interest in her occupations, and to teach her to take responsibility as her development makes this possible. In housewife fashion she learns to prepare and serve meals, to put up jelly and fruit, to do laundry work, sewing, mending, and house-cleaning, and to entertain guests, and she may even be given opportunity to supervise the work of others.

Annie has practice in going on errands and in making purchases. She has her treasured belongings kept in her own locker. These allow her to express her personal tastes and teach her the meaning of property. She works out in her arithmetic class, item by item, the cost of her clothing. She knows how to estimate differences between wholesale and retail buying. She sees and takes part in business going on in the institution—the running of a candy shop on Saturdays, the applying for and getting extra "jobs" about the house to make money, the using of the bank in the home. She is perhaps one among forty of the children who keep savings accounts, totaling two hundred dollars, in a city bank. The boy who saved his money and bought a bicycle and the children who are able to give generous presents at Christmas are an inspiring example to the rest.

Annie has encouragement in school work. Individual genius is not neglected. If she shows special aptitude, she may go to high school or receive technical training. Arrangements may even be made to help a gifted child to go to college. On the other hand, if she is adapted by nature for manual work, she is not made miserable by a hopeless attempt to force upon her a higher education which she is incapable of receiving, but effort is made to train her for an occupation for which she is fitted.

Outdoor life, varied according to the season, is included in her daily programme. Working in her garden, hiking, playing tennis, swinging, flying about on the giant strides, coasting, roller skating, swimming, roaming the woods at Tivoli, the children's summer camp, are occupations for play hours, which, in addition to her indoor gymnastic training, help to give Annie a strong body and a healthy mind. Within doors, too, she has recreation in books from the home and public libraries, both of which she uses; and in games, toys, and music in the big and little play-rooms, game-room, reading-room, and sitting-room. Besides instruments for educational purposes the girls have one piano for free use. Two of the boys own a violin and a cornet. Many of the children have good voices. Some sing in the choirs of neighboring churches. Thirty children have piano lessons through the generosity of a friend. Informal singing together, on Sundays especially, gives both boys and girls much pleasure.

Saturday afternoon to Annie is a great holiday time and supplies a stimulus to good behavior. At noon on that day the weekly marks are posted on the conduct chart. Children whose rating is good go on picnics or hikes or get up skating parties, or have some other pleasure equally attractive to them. Those who have done badly are assigned tasks. So effective is this system that rarely does any other form of discipline have to be employed in the home.

Annie's English is corrected and pains are taken to teach her pleasant manners without awkwardness. Self-government and civic ideals are given opportunity for development —more among the boys, it is true, but Annie is not wholly excluded from the influence. The boy's Forum, with its Senate and Committees on Law and Order, Health, Thrift, Athletics, and Recreation, and its Big Brother Committee, are a power in the home and a preparation for outside life, and there is progress in the same direction among the girls.

Annie's religious training is a matter of every day in the week. On Sunday she goes to the church of her selection with an informal group of children, chatting as they walk along. She has an afternoon Sunday-school at home. There are daily practical talks in the chapel. Every attempt is made to bring the teaching within the understanding of the child and to link religion with life. The personal influence of members of the staff has its effect. From time to time one or more of the older boys or girls by seemingly intelligent choice unite with one of the various churches.

In thin disguise of semi-fiction I have told true stories. The unhappy Annie is as real as the happier one. Each community must decide what kind of Annie it wants. This little waif is with us at our mercy.

Even in the modern orphanage that I have described the child cannot have the best that might be given. The Leake and Watts Orphan House, for instance, wants to do for its children much more than it is now doing.

As soon as its circumstances permit it wants to have for all its girls, at least, cottage life, with its special opportunities for training in home-making, leaving for the boys and for administrative and school purposes the congregate central building, which is its heritage from the past. It wants to do more placing-out work, for young children especially. Nature means the very little ones to be in mother's arms, rather than in the best of institutions. For both young and older children it wants to find more free private homes offered from affection.

Is it Utopian to hope that some day the poverty-stricken, parentless child will make a stronger appeal to our prosperous country than it does now, that we may seek more effectively to find and eliminate the causes of destitute orphanhood, and that in the meantime our great army of charity-supported children—there are over twenty-three thousand from New York City alone—may be given a happy childhood, full opportunity for development, and a chance to fit themselves to run the race of life with those more fortunate than they ?

THE FINANCIAL RESOURCES OF THE ALLIES

THEIR POTENTIAL WEALTH AND FUTURE DEVELOPMENT, AS INDICATED BY THEIR CONTROL OF HALF THE WORLD'S AREA AND POPULATION AND THE SECURITY FOR THEIR OBLIGATIONS WHICH THIS CONTROL PROVIDES

BY THEODORE H. PRICE

THE financial resources of the Allies have been selected as the subject of this article because the recent statement of the Federal Reserve Board in regard to the purchase of foreign loans by our banks has been misunderstood by many as a reflection on the credit of the borrowing governments.

This is not the case, but the result nevertheless has been a slight decline in the market price of the Allied obligations already held here, an abandonment of all efforts to float further loans in this country, and a cessation in the demand for many of the things that the Entente Powers were previously buying of us.

By many it seems to be assumed that we have determined to deny further credit to the Allies, and as this policy, if persisted in, may have portentous consequences for us and for civilization, it is most important that we should understand the questions involved in all their aspects.

Should the German overtures for peace be rejected, as seems probable, and the war go on for another two years, the final issue will be largely dependent upon the financial support that shall be accorded to Great Britain and her Allies in this country.

If we are content that a triumphant Germany should menace the world's peace and our own independence until we are drawn into the next war for the protection of our National life and the preservation of international law, then we may be consistent, though short-sighted, in insisting upon a C. O. D. policy in our further dealings with Great Britain and her Allies.

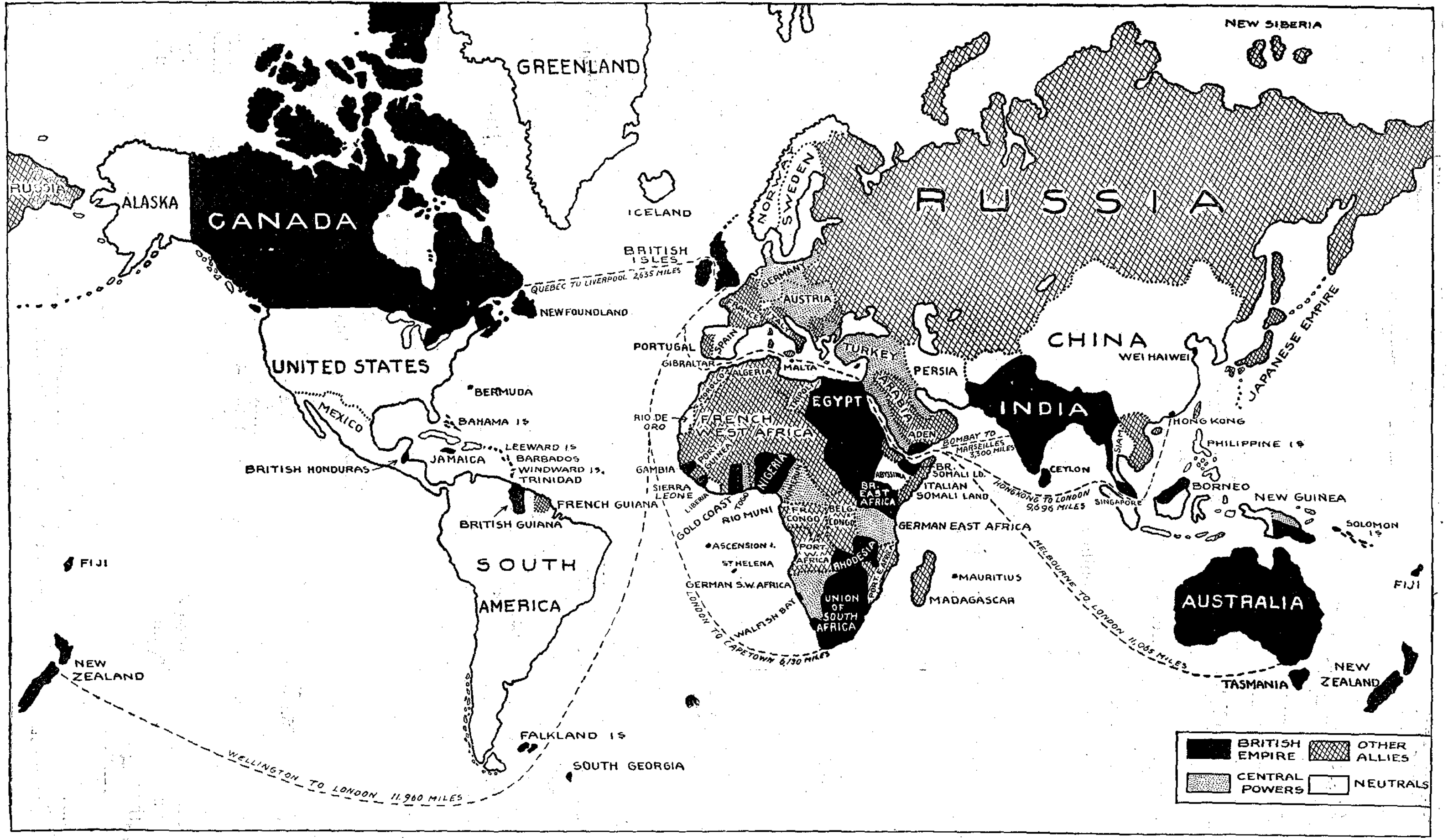
If, on the other hand, we value the Government under which we live and desire to preserve for our posterity the opportunities that it affords, then we must do what we can with the money power that we now possess to protect it from the ambitions of those

"Whose game is empires and whose stakes are thrones,
Whose table earth, whose dice are human bones."

The only way in which we can exert this money power is by lending it, and while most well-informed financiers are entirely confident that such loans to almost any amount would be good, the public generally are in doubt concerning the adequacy of the resources that are behind them.

It is to dissipate that doubt that this article is written.

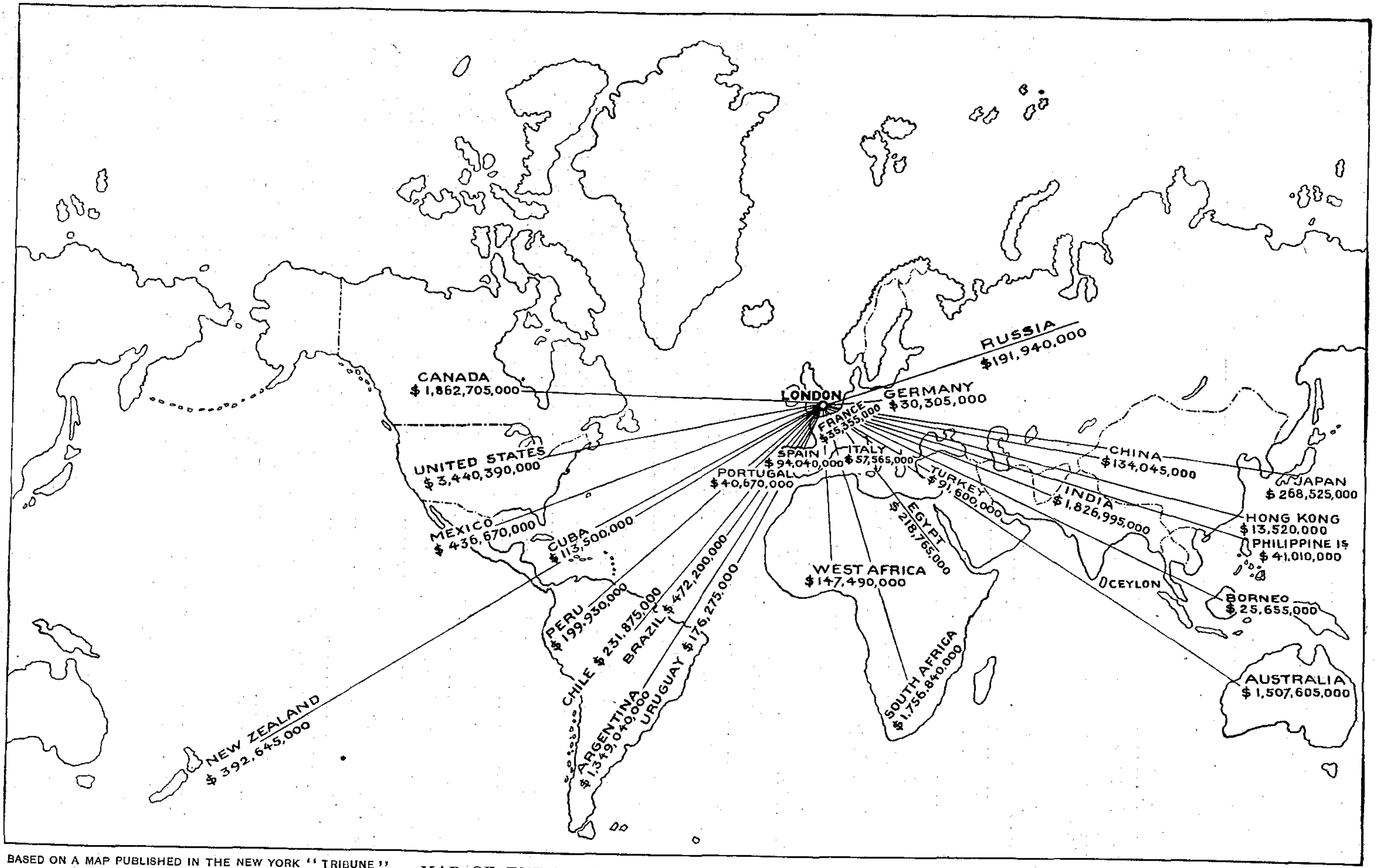
In dealing with the subject an effort will be made to avoid overweighting the discus-


NEW SIBERIA
GREENLAND
RUSSIA
ALASKA
CANADA
ICELAND
BRITISH ISLES
QUEBEC TO LIVERPOOL 2,635 MILES
NEWFOUNDLAND
NORWAY
SWEDEN
GERMANY
AUSTRIA
FRANCE
SPAIN
PORTUGAL
GIBRALTAR
ALGERIA
MOROCCO
MALTA
TRIPOLI
TURKEY
ARABIA
PERSIA
CHINA
WEI HAIWEI
JAPANESE EMPIRE
UNITED STATES
BERMUDA
MEXICO
BAHAMA IS
LEEWARD IS
BARBADOS
WINDWARD IS.
TRINIDAD
JAMAICA
BRITISH HONDURAS
RIO DE ORO
GAMBIA
SIERRA LEONE
LIBERIA
GOLD COAST
TOGO
RIO MUNI
FRENCH WEST AFRICA
PORT. GUINEA
NIGERIA
KAMERUN
EGYPT
ADEN
ABYSSINIA
BR. EAST AFRICA
BR. SOMALI LD.
ITALIAN SOMALI LAND
FR. CONGO
BELG. CONGO
PORT. W. AFRICA
RHODESIA
PORT. E. AFRICA
UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA
GERMAN EAST AFRICA
GERMAN S.W. AFRICA
WALFISH BAY
ASCENSION I.
ST HELENA
LONDON TO CAPETOWN 6,130 MILES
MAURITIUS
MADAGASCAR
INDIA
BOMBAY TO MARSEILLES 3,500 MILES
CEYLON
SIAM
HONG KONG
HONGKONG TO LONDON 9,696 MILES
SINGAPORE
PHILIPPINE IS
BORNEO
NEW GUINEA
SOLOMON IS
FIJI
AUSTRALIA
MELBOURNE TO LONDON 11,065 MILES
TASMANIA
NEW ZEALAND
FRENCH GUIANA
BRITISH GUIANA
SOUTH AMERICA
FALKLAND IS
SOUTH GEORGIA
FIJI
NEW ZEALAND
WELLINGTON TO LONDON 11,960 MILES
BRITISH EMPIRE
OTHER ALLIES
CENTRAL POWERS
NEUTRALS

MAP OF THE WORLD SHOWING TERRITORY UNDER DOMINION OF THE BRITISH EMPIRE AND ITS ALLIES, THE CENTRAL POWERS, AND THE NEUTRALS

As shown in the accompanying article, the governments of the Allies control more than one-half the world's habitable land, estimated at 52,824,533 square miles, and nearly one-half of its entire population, estimated at 1,751,700,000 souls. The exact distribution is as follows:

	Area Controlled. Square Miles.		Area Controlled. Per Cent.	Population Controlled. Number.		Population Controlled. Per Cent.
By the Allies	29,208,528	=	55.29	862,200,000	=	49.24
By the Central Powers	2,960,082	=	5.60	164,000,000	=	9.38
By the United States	3,741,828	=	7.08	110,000,000	=	6.30
By the Other Neutrals	16,914,095	=	32.03	615,500,000	=	35.08
Total	52,824,533		100.00	1,751,700,000		100.00


CANADA
$ 1,862,705,000
UNITED STATES
$ 3,440,390,000
MEXICO
$ 436,670,000
CUBA
$ 113,500,000
NEW ZEALAND
$ 392,645,000
PERU
$ 199,930,000
CHILE $ 231,875,000
BRAZIL $ 472,200,000
URUGUAY $ 176,275,000
ARGENTINA
$ 1,349,040,000
LONDON
GERMANY
$ 30,305,000
RUSSIA
$ 191,940,000
FRANCE
$ 35,355,000
SPAIN
$ 94,040,000
PORTUGAL
$ 40,670,000
ITALY
$ 57,565,000
TURKEY
$ 91,600,000
EGYPT
$ 218,765,000
WEST AFRICA
$ 147,490,000
SOUTH AFRICA
$ 1,756,840,000
CHINA
$ 134,045,000
INDIA
$ 1,826,995,000
CEYLON
JAPAN
$ 268,525,000
HONG KONG
$ 13,520,000
PHILIPPINE IS
$ 41,010,000
BORNEO
$ 25,655,000
AUSTRALIA
$ 1,507,605,000

BASED ON A MAP PUBLISHED IN THE NEW YORK "TRIBUNE"

MAP OF THE FINANCIAL EMPIRE OF GREAT BRITAIN

Showing the British capital invested in each of the more important foreign countries prior to the war. The figures given indicate only the value of the estimated British holdings of the securities issued by the governments or corporations of the various countries, but do not include the large amount of English capital privately or "invisibly" loaned to the citizens of those countries. The diagram is not, therefore, statistically complete and is published simply to give a general idea of the inclusive financial dominion of Great Britain

	Wealth.	Area Square Miles.	Population.
THE BRITISH EMPIRE			
Great Britain and Ireland	$85,000,000,000	121,331	45,000,000
Canada	7,000,000,000	3,892,621	8,500,000
Asia, including India	15,000,000,000	1,952,912	323,000,000
Other British possessions, including Africa and Australasia	23,000,000,000	6,778,902	61,000,000
Total British Empire	$130,000,000,000	12,745,766	437,500,000
THE OTHER ALLIES			
France	$50,000,000,000	207,054	40,000,000
French colonies	5,000,000,000	4,776,032	48,000,000
Russia	40,000,000,000	8,647,657	180,000,000
Japan, including Korea, etc.	15,000,000,000	258,266	72,000,000
Italy	20,000,000,000	110,623	35,000,000
Italian colonies	(No estimate)	596,000	2,000,000
Belgium	9,000,000,000	11,373	7,500,000
Belgian Congo	(No estimate)	900,000	15,000,000
Portugal	2,500,000,000	35,490	6,000,000
Portuguese colonies in Asia and Africa	(No estimate)	832,267	9,200,000
Rumania and Servia	1,000,000,000	88,000	10,000,000
Total British Empire and the Other Allies	$272,500,000,000	29,208,528	862,200,000
THE CENTRAL POWERS			
Germany	$80,000,000,000	208,780	65,000,000
German colonies (before the war)	(No estimate)	1,027,820	14,000,000
Austria-Hungary	25,000,000,000	260,034	49,000,000
Turkey and Bulgaria, including Asiatic Turkey	3,000,000,000	1,463,448	36,000,000
Total Central Powers	$108,000,000,000	2,960,082	164,000,000
THE NEUTRAL NATIONS			
United States, including Alaska and Philippines	$250,000,000,000	3,741,828	110,000,000
Spain	5,400,000,000	190,050	20,000,000
Spanish colonies	(No estimate)	90,561	1,000,000
Netherlands	5,000,000,000	12,648	6,000,000
Dutch colonies	2,000,000,000	1,046,445	37,000,000
Switzerland	4,000,000,000	15,976	3,700,000
Other European neutrals—Norway-Sweden, Denmark, and Greece	5,000,000,000	445,593	16,000,000
China	10,000,000,000	2,169,200	400,000,000
Mexico and Central America	5,000,000,000	971,980	21,000,000
South America	30,000,000,000	7,341,899	55,000,000
Asia, including Afghanistan, Arabia, Persia, Tibet, Siam, Mongolia, Bhutan, Nepal, Oman, and Khiva	(No estimate)	4,107,120	39,000,000
Africa, including Abyssinia, Liberia	(No estimate)	431,000	10,000,000
West Indies, Cuba, Haiti, and Dominican Republic	1,000,000,000	73,693	15,000,000
Unimportant European states, including Albania, Andorra, Liechtenstein, Luxemburg, Monaco, Montenegro, and San Marino	(No estimate)	17,930	1,800,000
Total neutrals	$317,400,000,000	20,655,923	725,500,000
Grand total	$697,900,000,000	52,824,533	1,751,700,000

TABLE SHOWING COMPARATIVE WEALTH, AREA, AND POPULATION OF GREAT BRITAIN AND THE OTHER ALLIES, THE CENTRAL POWERS, AND THE NEUTRAL NATIONS sion with figures or statistics. In almost his last public utterance the late Pierpont Morgan said that he had more regard for character than for wealth as a basis of credit, and it is in the light of this statement that the right of the Allied Powers to ask and receive credit from us will be chiefly considered.

While what is called the "National wealth" of a borrowing community should not be wholly disregarded in determining the value of its obligations, it is to be remembered that the revenue to be derived from this wealth is almost entirely dependent upon the character, industry, and resourcefulness of the people who possess it. The National wealth of the United States is to-day estimated at about two hundred and fifty billions of dollars. In 1850 it was estimated at only seven billions. This is an increase of about thirty-six hundred per cent. In the same interval our population has increased from 23,191,876 to about 110,000,000, or only four hundred per cent.

The natural resources of the country were quite as great in 1850 as they are in 1916, but they were undeveloped, and their development at a rate nine times as rapid as the growth in population has been largely, if not entirely, due to the intelligence and enterprise of that population. It is the Biblical story of the men with the talents over again.

He who received five talents won his lord's approbation by doubling them, but the servant to whom only one talent was given contented himself with keeping it safely and was condemned as "wicked, slothful, and unprofitable," because he failed to add to it.

It is, moreover, exceedingly difficult to know what is meant by "national wealth." Apparently it includes only such property or assets as may have a market value at which theoretically they could be sold. Good will, admittedly a very important asset, is not included, and the value of the human population is excluded.

This last item—namely, the value of the men, women, and children who compose a nation—is obviously the most important item in any country's wealth. Without them everything else would be worthless, and the value of everything else depends upon their activities and intelligence.

Before the Proclamation of Emancipation the estimates of our National wealth included the value of the slaves. In an economic sense the average man, woman, and child are now worth far more than they were in 1860, but they are nevertheless disregarded in all computations of the world's wealth or that of any particular nation. A funded debt is a capitalization of the borrower's earning power in anticipation, and in the case of a nation four factors enter into a determination of this earning power. They are:

1. The units of human energy available—*i.e.*, the population.
2. The intelligence and ambition of this population.
3. The resources and area susceptible of development.
4. The continuity of effort made possible by peace, hygiene, and increased longevity and health.

Inasmuch as the debts now being created will not fall due for almost a generation, and will no doubt be then refunded, at least in part, the present wealth of the borrowers is not an important consideration except as it provides capital for future development and a fund against which present taxes may be assessed. Favored by long years of peace and popular education, the people of the United States have developed the resources of the North American continent with extraordinary rapidity. It is not, however, to be assumed that nature has endowed North America more liberally than Europe, Asia, or Africa, and in calculating the probable earning power of the Allied Powers, the territory they control and the population available for its development are the factors chiefly to be considered.

The latest estimates of the material wealth, area, and population of the world's neutrals and belligerents are shown in the table on the preceding page.

Excluding the uninhabitable portion of the Arctic Zone and seas, the land area of the earth is estimated at about 52,824,533 square miles, and the present population is about 1,751,700,000.

This area and population are controlled as follows:

	Of the Area.		Of the Population.	
	Square Miles.	Per cent.		Per cent.
By the Allies	29,208,528	55.29	862,200,000	49.24
By the Central Powers	2,960,082	5.60	164,000,000	9.38
By the United States	3,741,828	7.08	110,000,000	6.30
By the other neutrals	16,914,095	32.03	615,500,000	35.08
Total	52,824,533	100.00	1,751,700,000	100.00

According to Mulhall, the population of Europe hardly exceeded 50,000,000 before the fifteenth century. It is now about 460,000,000. At its present ratio of gain, the world's population will be about 4,000,000,000 in 2014. If in its political relation to this population the status of the Allied Powers shall remain unchanged, is there any reason to doubt that such a preponderant control of the earth's area and human energy will enable them to pay the interest and amortization charges on almost any debt they may now assume?

The potential resources of the area now under their dominion are incalculable. With the aid of science and labor-saving machinery these resources are certain to be developed with amazing rapidity after the war, and the revenue that will be derived from them will afford well-paid employment to the increasing population and rapidly recreate the wealth that is now being destroyed.

To doubt this and deny credit to the peoples who are now fighting that this development may hereafter be undisturbed by the selfish and destructive ambition of a military dynasty is to put our own material and political future in serious jeopardy.

THE READER'S VIEW

GREECE—DEMOCRACY OR AUTOCRACY?

Americans cannot understand why the Greeks, a nation which about a century ago gained its independence only after a fierce nine years' war, should to-day accept the unconstitutional and almost absolutistic rule of King Constantine. In other words, if the Greeks are a freedom-loving people, why is the irresponsible crown allowed to have and carry out a policy of its own? If they are not, why did they rebel against the tyrannical Sultan of Turkey in order to establish a separate State? Was it because they wanted a new autocrat or because they wanted to rule themselves?

Greece of the second decade of the twentieth century is a whirlpool of the two periods of her history—the pre-Christian and the post-Christian. Every Greek remembers, as if having seen it on a poorly illuminated magic-lantern screen, that his fatherland was in the days of old a great republic with every little town governing itself, where the will of the people as expressed by themselves in their assemblies was law, where some men were practically rulers, but whose only scepter was eloquence, where Themistocles, Pericles, Epaminondas, Alcibiades, and many others were leaders in their cities only because of their personalities.

Then the picture is blurred by a bright light. Rome, gradually spreading, occupies all the screen; Greece is lost in the immense Empire.

When Greece reappears, it is the magnificent palaces and the imposing cathedrals, the court, the Patriarch, and the Emperor of Constantinople that attract attention. The Emperor, fighting the Arabs, Slavs, Persians, and Turks, and the Patriarch, opposing the Pope and the Emperor, are the two history-making figures. The people are thrust to the background. Constantine XI, the last of the Byzantine Emperors, when in 1453 Constantinople fell into the hands of the Turks, was, as the tradition runs, "transformed into marble, and hides in a grotto under the city waiting for the trumpet-call of the *other Constantine* who will come some day to deliver him. Then the priests, bishops, and Patriarch, whom the divine Providence saved when San Sofia was invaded by the Turkish hordes, by raising magically an indestructible wall between the bloodthirsty soldiers and the officiating clergymen, will come out and crown him Emperor Constantine the XIIth. And then he will pursue the Turks till none is left under the sun."

To-day in Greece there is one representative of each period of history, of each type of government: Venizelos, of the democratic antiquity, and King Constantine, of the Imperial Middle Ages. The whole power of the former lies in his personality and in his ability as a statesman. He is the man who rules by suggestion, who wishes to rule through the Parliament according to the Constitution. He stands for the people's rights, voices them, defends them.

The latter is a great military commander, and especially of the German type. He likes to rule by command. He wants to rule in spite of the Parliament and the people. He has, however, one great support in his effort against the people's will; it is the long-cherished tradition of the future Empire of Greece, with Constantinople its capital. In him the Greeks see the long-expected deliverer of Constantine XI, the Emperor who, transformed to marble, is still waiting for his successor and savior; and they feel a superstitious awe and faith in him as well as in the realization of the tradition.

If liberal Venizelos stands for liberty, self-government, commercial and industrial progress, the autocratic Constantine stands for glory, for military achievement, for future greatness.

Greece, now hesitating at the cross-road between the policies of a democratic leader who points to a road of a practical government of the people, by and for themselves, and an absolutistic ruler who promises to lead to military greatness, must sooner or later take the first steps towards becoming either Switzerland, France, the United States, Germany, or Russia.

The people, by expressing by votes or acts their approval or disapprobation of the unconstitutional interference of the King in the policy of the Prime Minister, will seal their new Constitution as a democratic or an autocratic one.

EUSTACE CONYUMDJOPOULOS.
Detroit, Michigan.

THE BIRD-CAT QUESTION

Perhaps one who has lived sixty-odd years in the country, at or near the edge of the woods, and whose chief pleasure has been tramping through fields and woods, may be permitted a word on the bird-cat question, one side of which lately appeared in your pages.

By those who know me I have been known as a bird lover, and have spent hours protecting the nests of stupid robins that have built in too-exposed places near the house. I am not sure but this was ill-judged interference with nature's laws of selection. I admit myself a cat lover, but in the past twenty-five years have owned only two cats, one for ten and the other for fifteen years. They were both unsexed males. I became very well acquainted with their habits, even in the night time. Being fed practically nothing but milk, they were obliged to hunt their own meat, and, I believe, would almost invariably report their catches, bringing them to the house with that peculiar muffled note that a cat uses at no other time. If in the daytime, they generally received a pat and a word of praise, except on the rare occasions when the quarry was a bird; but they never appreciated the discrimination, for I believe they always brought their bird when they caught it, which, probably, averaged two or three times a year.

During those long years they were a value and comfort to the home hard to calculate, rendering house and barn free from rats and mice, and winning real affection by their quiet, friendly, homelike ways.

My outdoor wanderings have been chiefly in the rural parts of Westchester County, New York, where the conditions are presumably similar to those in Massachusetts. Though I have occasionally seen cats hunting in the fields, I could generally place them as belonging to some neighboring farm-house. I am surprised to hear on scientific authority that they "revert" to the wild life, for my uniform observation has been that they like the proximity of humans, and, when left homeless, always make their home in some building near humanity.

If I should find a "feral" cat that, having "reverted," was living and breeding in the wild, I should feel like beginning search for a griffin and a mermaid to complete the collection.

When a cat is seen hunting in the open fields, he is hunting field-mice. If he catches a bird, it is because one comes along. A little watching will convince any observer of this. The field-mouse is his favorite food, and he shares with the hawk and owl the credit of keeping its numbers within reasonable bounds. Otherwise its prolific habits would render some branches of farming and gardening unprofitable. That cats will occasionally hunt in the woods is undeniable, but only once do I remember seeing one in the act, and that was my own, and within a dozen rods of the barn.

Some closet naturalist, working overtime with his microscope, has found grubs in the maw of a crow, and, probably having never observed his ravages in corn-field, poultry yard, and woods, has sent forth the dictum that the crow, like the Union, must and shall be preserved! Barring sentimental considerations, the world would probably be better off if the last of his race were preserved in alcohol. One young songster that has made him a quarter of a breakfast would have destroyed twice the insects that a crow would. Any careful observer will probably agree with me that the crows throughout the Eastern States are increasing in numbers. A bounty should be put on their heads. Man is the only enemy they have that can be depended on to thin them out.

Amherst, Virginia. E. N. BARRETT.

HOW TO SAVE "HEN-FRUIT"

May an old and interested reader say a few words apropos of the matter of eggs as referred to in your issue of December 13? You suggest keeping them at home *immersed* in water-glass, which is a silicate of soda. Many do not understand that the shells of eggs are porous. The effect of water-glass is to close the infinitesimal holes, and to do this the eggs are simply *dipped* into a solution of this "artificial stone" and then dried.

Now a consideration about this proceeding is that water-glass has a slight flavor, which is imparted to eggs that are coated with it.

Another simpler way to keep eggs for three or four months is to wrap them in paper, place in tin boxes, and store in a dry, cool, and even temperature. This way has proved to be most satisfactory.

In selecting the "hen-fruit" it is better to have sterile ones, as they can be kept longer and in a higher temperature than fertile eggs.

To those who do not happen to know it may be of interest to be told that it is not cold weather that stops poultry from laying, but the fact that they are growing a new suit of clothing, heavier than that which nature had supplied for the summer, and the tax upon the birds is so much that the egg secretions are temporarily suspended. Because being coincident with the coming in of winter it is commonly attributed to cold, instead of to the physical conditions, that hens stop laying in November. F. G. LYMAN.

Cowansville, Quebec, Canada.

BY THE WAY

The Authors' League of America, according to "The Writer," has decided not to become affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. Nearly sixty per cent of the 1,400 members favored affiliation, it is stated, but "the other forty per cent threatened to resign." If the Authors' League had adopted union rules as to hours of labor, at least one author mentioned on another page of "The Writer" would probably have been dissatisfied; his working hours, it is stated, begin at five o'clock in the morning and "he frequently writes eight thousand words a day;" on one day he wrote "fourteen little articles of about seven hundred words each." Such industry would surely be tabooed by the Federation.

A Southern paper, the Lenoir (South Carolina) "News," has a column of "society notes worth while." It consists of the names of farmers who come to town to buy improved farm machinery. The idea might do more for progress in many counties than the "personals" that are often found in local papers.

A "Society of Clean-up Boosters" has been formed in Philadelphia. There are no dues, no fees, no fines, no expense of any kind for members. They sign a pledge, "I will be a Clean-Up Booster and help keep my city clean." In return they receive a tag to hang on the front porch, reading, "I Help Keep My City Clean." This is sent free by the city Highway Bureau. Such an effort to rouse civic pride might well be imitated in other cities.

Here is a suggestion for a society for the promotion of courtesy in public service conveyances. The idea need not be confined to subway cars, but would apply equally well to trolleys or horse cars—if any of the latter still survive outside of New York City. The friend who sends this suggestion says that courtesy is a mutual obligation between men and women, and proposes an appeal both to those who give and those who accept. Here is appeal No. 1:

GENTLEMEN!
WILL YOU JOIN THE SUBWAY COURTESY CLUB?
THE ONLY CONDITION OF MEMBERSHIP IS THAT
ONCE A DAY
YOU YIELD YOUR SEAT TO A TIRED WOMAN OR GIRL
REMEMBER, YOUR MOTHER, WIFE, OR SISTER MAY
SOONER OR LATER BENEFIT BY YOUR KIND EXAMPLE

And here is No. 2:

LADIES!
WILL YOU JOIN THE SUBWAY COURTESY CLUB?
MEMBERSHIP IS EASY FOR YOU
TO THE OCCUPANT OF A SEAT WHO YIELDS
IT TO YOU A PLEASANT "THANK YOU" IS
YOUR PRIVILEGE AND HIS DUE. THAT'S ALL!

America is a wealthy country, but it does not often squander its money on saturnalia such as characterized the decadence of Rome. Instead some of its surplus wealth is spent for valuable paintings, for vast country houses, for palatial steam yachts, and so on. An indication of the taste for this kind of luxury is seen in a catalogue issued by a New York department store. One of the items is: "An original Tudor house, built in 1470. . . . The tiles, the hand-carved beams, the doors, window frames, the outside half timbers . . . have all been brought to America. . . . Can be set up as a week-end or guest house on a large country place." The price of the house in its present condition is $25,000!

Some strange shifts are being resorted to by the railways to provide freight cars for the present extraordinary demand. Stock cars on the St. Louis-San Francisco road have, it is reported, been papered for the purpose of shipping merchandise to Western points; and the Southern Pacific has pressed into service its open cars, both flat and gondolas, by protecting the exposed load of merchandise with heavy tarpaulins of cotton duck.

Some of the biggest trees in the Sequoia National Park have remained in the hands of private owners until recently. Congress appropriated $50,000 to purchase the trees and the land on which they stood, but $20,000 more was required to settle other claims. The $20,000 has, with real public spirit, been provided by the National Geographic Society for this purpose, and the entire tract will become the property of the Government. Some of the trees thus acquired are believed to be four thousand years old.

A street railway at Windsor, Ontario, according to the "Railway Age Gazette," is advertising for women to act as car conductors.

Ask each one of a company of fifty people to rise separately and remain standing for one minute. There will be fifty different records, varying from ten to sixty seconds. Ask ten workmen each to bring you a short and a long board, and you will get twenty different lengths of board. These illustrations are used by a railway man to emphasize the necessity of a mechanical device to eliminate the element of uncertainty as to what constitutes a "long" or a "short" whistle by a locomotive. It is not right, he says, to trust the safety of a train-load of passengers to a guess upon a guess. "It occasionally happens, and has a few times happened with disastrous results, that the train crew, or some member of it—say a man doing duty as a flagman—has misunderstood the 'old man's toots.'" A simple mechanism might easily eliminate the personal element here.

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